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ABSTRACT

The more than 20 countries that participated in Phase 1 of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study were asked to respond to 18 sets of framing questions formulated by an international planning committee. A National Expert Panel met to generate responses to the 18 sets of framing questions. Panelists volunteered to draft written responses to approximately two questions each, commenting on six points raised by the international committee: importance, policies, terminology, public discourse/controversy, organizations, and sources. Drafts were then evaluated by the whole panel. The National Expert Panel identified the questions they thought would be of highest priority, and these priorities were considered along with those of the other participating countries when the international committee selected the four core international questions addressed in the third document in this series. An annotated list of organizations involved in civic education in the United States is part of this document; these nongovernmental organizations, professional associations, and varied groups provide materials, educate teachers, sponsor contests, influence policy, and draw attention to particular facets of civic education. Information was obtained from the "Encyclopedia of Associations 95," as well as from organizational Web sites, responses from a survey sent to organizations, telephone interviews with organizational staff, and brochures obtained from exhibits. (Contains 54 references.) (BT)

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IEA CIVIC EDUCATION STUDY
PHASE I: THE UNITED STATES
Volume II

RESPONSES TO THE 18 FRAMING QUESTIONS
a - f

Written by members of the National Expert Panel:
Margaret Branson, Gloria Contreras, Carole Hahn, Sheilah Mann, Pat Nickell,
Richard Niemi, Valerie Pang, John Patrick, and Richard Sirvint

Edited by Carole L. Hahn, Michael Hughes, and Trisha Sen

and

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AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF ORGANIZATIONS CITED IN a - f AND OTHERS RELATED TO CIVIC EDUCATION

September 1998

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September 1998

Preface

This document is the second of four prepared for Phase I of the Civic Education Study, under the auspices of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). The more than 20 countries that participated in Phase I of the IEA Civic Education Study were asked to respond to 18 sets of Framing Questions. The questions were formulated by the international planning committee, chaired by Judith Torney-Purta at the University of Maryland.

The National Project Representative in the United States, Dr. Carole Hahn at Emory University, appointed a National Expert Panel in September of 1995. The following month the panel members met in Washington D.C. to generate responses to the 18 sets of Framing Questions, drawing on their considerable experience and expertise. Panelists then volunteered to draft written responses to approximately two questions each, commenting on six points raised by the international planning committee: importance, policies, terminology, public discourse/controversy, organizations, and sources. The drafts from individual panelists were circulated to the whole panel for review and suggestions. Finally, the project staff edited the document to try to convey a consistent tone and style despite its having been written by a committee.

After initial discussions of the 18 Framing Questions, at the October 1995 meeting, the National Expert Panel identified the questions they thought would be of highest priority (see "importance" sections of this document) for the development of a case study of civic education in the United States. Those priorities were considered along with those of the other participating countries when the international planning committee selected the four core international questions which are addressed in the third document in this series.

Included as part of this document is an Annotated List of Organizations involved in civic education in the United States. These non-governmental organizations, professional associations, and varied groups provide materials, educate teachers, sponsor contests,

influence policy, and draw attention to particular facets of civic education. To obtain the information that is presented, we used the Encyclopedia of Associations 95 (Schwartz & Turner, 1994), organizational Websites on the Internet, responses from a survey we sent to organizations, telephone interviews with organizational staff, and brochures obtained from exhibits at an annual conference of the National Council for the Social Studies and one of its state affiliates.

We wish to thank members of the National Expert Panel and members of organizations for their assistance in developing this publication. Thanks also to the National Center for Education Statistics of the United States Office of Education for funding this project.

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September, 1998

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Responses to the 18 Framing Questions

a-f

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1. What are young people expected or likely to have learned by age 14 or 15 from study of the nation's history or literature (or the arts) as a guide to understanding their country, their government and the rights and obligations of citizenship? Is there a certain interpretation of history predominant in the classroom? (In some countries this would be phrased as the existence of a "citizenship canon.") What are the texts, role models, historical events, and ideas which are widely believed to be an important orienting force for all citizens to know about—for example, constitutional principles; national liberators; decisive wars, revolutions, or uprisings; national traumas or periods of oppression. Who are the heroes and role models thought to be worthy of national pride, and how are they presented to students? What point of view are young people encouraged to adopt regarding national leaders and major political events in history? Are students encouraged to study and understand, or to ignore events of which many people in the nation are not proud?

a. Importance

The history of the United States is a core subject of the curriculum in American elementary and secondary schools, although at the elementary level considerably less time and attention is given to this subject than to reading/language arts and mathematics. Through studies of their national history, American students are expected to learn the political principles and civic traditions of the United States. The study of United States history--whether in chronological order or through thematic units--is a central part of the civic education of American youngsters. Civic traditions and values are also taught through the study of American literature, a staple of the English-language arts facet of the core curriculum of schools. In the United States, in contrast to some other countries, the fine arts are not a major vehicle for teaching students about their nation's history, except through some elementary school music and art programs. Given the centrality of American history and literature in the curriculum, this question is of fundamental importance in any assessment of civic learning in the United States.

b. Policies

Curriculum guides of the 50 state-level departments of education specify goals and objectives for student learning of United States history. They typically describe what students are expected to know and be able to do. For example, the History-Social Science Framework of the California Department of Education and the 1995 Michigan state framework specify the essential elements of "historical literacy" that all students in the two states are expected to achieve. Further, the California Framework expresses the content students in California should learn through core courses in United States history at grades 5, 8, and 11. School districts within the 50 states of the United States also develop and use curriculum guides that specify goals, objectives, and course work in United States history. Curriculum goals and expectations about student achievement are also expressed in publications such as the National Council for the Social Studies' (NCSS) Curriculum Standards for Social Studies, the Center for Civic Education's National Standards for Civics and Government, the National Center for History in the School's National Standards for History and the National Assessment of Educational Progress's (NAEP) United States History Framework for the 1994 United States history assessment.

In many elementary schools (ages 5 to 11), national holidays such as Thanksgiving, Presidents Day, and Martin Luther King Jr.'s birthday are celebrated with stories, art projects, bulletin board displays, and songs. In most school systems, students study some United States history at the end of elementary school (often in the 5th-grade, age 10), for approximately three 30-minute periods per week and in middle school (often in the 8th-grade, age 13) for one 45-minute period per day. Additionally in some states, students study about their states' history--often in grades 4, 7 or 8.

In the first several years of school, students often study about "community helpers" in which they learn about the relationship of citizens to the police, fire fighters, and their neighbors. Throughout these years students hear that a good citizen obeys the laws and votes. In their classes, there are sometimes marks for "citizenship" or individual pupils are singled out as "good citizens" for being well behaved or exercising leadership. Children's literature and art projects are

selected more for their appeal to children than for any explicit attempt to inculcate civic values. In recent years, some critics of citizenship education in the United States have argued that too little attention is paid to heroes and to good literature (Bennett, 1994). Over the past 20 years many teachers and school districts have deliberately tried to teach more about heroes from diverse ethnic groups, about women as well as men who worked for community improvement, and about the "unsung heroes" from ordinary life rather than only famous people. This change in the citizenship canon, however, has stimulated criticism among some members of the public who feel that schools are giving in to "political correctness" and no longer placing sufficient emphasis on the themes and individuals of a common heritage.

During their initial lessons in American history, children usually study about the colonial period, the American Revolution, the writing and ratifying of the United States Constitution and Bill of Rights, the westward movement, and the Civil War and Reconstruction. In some states, pupils study about 20th century American history (including World Wars I and II, the Depression, and the Cold War); in others, students do not study recent history until after they are 15 years old. Presidents and other national leaders are usually portrayed as heroes with emphasis on their positive characteristics. However, after age 15, when students again take United States history, teachers and materials encourage students to reflect upon positive and negative aspects of our nation's leaders or tell anecdotes revealing negative as well as positive qualities. Today students study about the negative effects on Native Americans of the westward movement of mostly white settlers, and about the evils of slavery. After they are 15 years old, in their high school United States history course, students are usually taught about the relocation camps for Japanese Americans during World War II and other incidents of which many today are not proud.

The attitudes of the American public to this issue are interesting. In a recent Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward education, 17% of respondents said they thought too much emphasis was put on the positive aspects of United States history; 18% thought too much emphasis was put on the negative aspects, while 48% said it was being taught with the right balance (Elam & Rose, 1995). Regardless, the extent to which students retain the historic knowledge that is presented has

been of concern to critics of existing curriculum and instruction.

Students learn about the rights and obligations of citizenship beyond lessons in national history. It is common practice to teach children about the general structure and functions of the three branches of government and the principle of checks and balances at the national and state levels. In most states, children study about federalism and their state's government and history, usually sometime in middle school or the beginning of high school (ages 10-14). They are less likely to have studied about local government. Over the past 20 years the law related education (LRE) movement has promoted programs that teach about citizens' rights and obligations as they pertain to the legal system. Usually about age 10, students study about the various regions and states of the United States and the history of their own state. Students also learn that good citizens vote. They periodically have class elections to elect class leaders and to vote on classroom level issues. They are likely to have studied about environmental issues and to have been encouraged to conserve, recycle, and keep the school environment clean.

In summary, civic learning through studies of American history and literature is addressed through the official curriculum of school districts throughout the United States. Formal courses in United States history are typically offered in grades 5 and 8 (sometimes at grade 7 instead of grade 8) and in the high school grades (typically at grade 11). Civic learning through literature and the arts begins in the primary grades and continues throughout the school curriculum, grades K-12.

c. Terminology

There is no special terminology used to label studies of national history and literature, except that much of it is found in courses labeled "social studies" or history, and "language arts" or English. A common civics theme in United States history courses is expressed in the United States History Framework for the 1994 National Assessment of Educational Progress: "Change and Continuity in American Democracy: Ideas, Institutions, Practices, and Controversies."

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

There has been much controversy during the past 20 years about the objectives, substance, and pedagogy of United States history and literature in American schools. The controversy has centered on the following themes and questions:

1. Arguments about the amount of treatment given to traditionally neglected groups in American history and literature, such as women, African Americans, Native Americans, Latinos, and various other ethnic groups in a crowded curriculum. How can the history and literature on these various groups be integrated into a new national history synthesis or literary canon?

2. Arguments about the synthesis of the new social history with the old political and military history. How can the "new history" and the "old history" be combined for the purpose of an integrated national social history?

3. Arguments about the meaning and pursuit of knowledge or "truth" in history--the epistemology of the subject. These arguments in literary and historical studies pertain to the interpretation of texts and the possibility of determining some kind of knowledge within and beyond the context of a particular time and place. To what extent is it possible to determine what is "true" through studies of history and literature?

4. Arguments about the possibility or desirability of a national history or literary canon. Is it possible or desirable to create a national history or literary canon as staples of the school curriculum? Will there be less support for United States institutions if a national history with common themes, is no longer taught?

An instance of nationwide arguments on history in the schools was the intense debate on the United States history content standards published in 1994 and funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities and the United States Department of Education. This controversy was covered extensively in the mass media. Sources of ideas and information about the contested themes and questions are: Appleby, Hunt, and Jacob (1994), Telling the Truth About History; Bailyn (1994), On the Teaching and Writing of History; Gagnon (1989), Historical Literacy: The Case for History in American Education; Himmelfarb (1987), The New History and the Old; and

Takaki (1993), A Different Mirror: A History of Multicultural America.

e. Organizations

Several national organizations are closely associated with this subject field, such as the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), the National Council for History Education, the American Historical Association (AHA), the Organization of American Historians (OAH), the Center for Civic Education (CCE), and the Modern Language Association. Various individuals and groups within these organizations have argued on different sides of the contested themes and questions on the teaching and learning of history and literature in the schools.

f. Sources

Teachers and leaders of some of the key professional associations could be interviewed. Relevant documents are: The National Standards for History (Center for History in the Schools, 1996), US History Framework for the 1994 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), The US History Report Card (for the 1986, 1988, and 1994 NAEP), 1998 NAEP Civics Assessment Planning Project: Recommended Assessment Framework and Test Specifications (NAEP), Building A History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools (The Bradley Commission Report), Social Studies Curriculum Resources Handbook: A Practical Guide for K-12 Social Studies Curriculum (Kraus International Publications, 1992), Charting A Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century (NCSS), and Curriculum Standards for Social Studies (NCSS). Information available from some of these documents includes:

1. U.S History Framework for the 1994 National Assessment of Educational Progress. Contains information about what is taught in United States history in elementary, middle, and high schools. The committees have selected four themes to be emphasized during the assessment of the student's knowledge of United States history.

2. 1998 NAEP Civics Assessment Planning Project: Contains information on assessing student knowledge of civics, including civic knowledge, intellectual and participatory skills, and

civic dispositions. Describes exercise formats, stimulus materials, and how to score student responses.

3. Building A History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools: Contains the Bradley Commission Recommendations (p. 7). Discusses important themes and narratives that include values, beliefs, political ideas and institutions, and patterns of social and political interaction.

4. National Standards for History: Part I contains standards in historical thinking and standards in history for grades k-4. Topic 3 is history of the United States. Part II, for grades 5-12, contains standards in historical thinking and standards for United States and world history. United States history standards for grades 5-12 relate to 10 eras in the nation's history.

5. Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: To achieve excellence in social studies ten thematic strands are proposed. Included among the ten are: (2) time, continuity, and change, (6) power, authority, and governance, (7) production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services, and (10) civic ideals and practices. This document includes standards and performance expectations for early grades, middle grades, and high school. It does not specify particular content. Further, it describes democratic beliefs and values that should be taught and also has a supplement on "A vision of powerful teaching and learning in social studies: Building social understanding and civic efficacy."

2. What are young people expected or likely to have acquired as a sense of national identity or national loyalty by age 14 or 15? To what degree are loyalty or sense of belonging to the nation, to its various communities, and to its traditions and institutions thought to be important to develop among young people? What attitudes are students expected to develop toward the institutions of governments, authorities and office - holders? Do these leaders have an almost sacred quality, or are they seen in certain ways as fallible? How much and what kinds of criticism of or skepticism about monarchs or national leaders are thought to be appropriate? What, if any, symbols (such as the national flag) are thought particularly important for students to respect?

a. Importance

The United States of America, unlike many other countries, was founded upon particular principles and values of constitutional democracy as asserted in the Declaration of Independence. From the founding era until today, citizens have been expected to know and support certain civic ideals, such as: (a) the equality of all persons in possession of inalienable rights; (b) the protection of these natural rights as the primary purpose of government; and (c) government by consent of the governed. Further, the principles, values, and traditions associated with constitutionalism, federalism, republicanism, and liberalism (defined as commitment to individual rights against governmental abuse) have been staples of the political system and civic culture. These principles, values, and traditions are transmitted to students through schools and other agencies of socialization or enculturation. The core of civic principles and values of the United States have constituted an "American creed" that frames national identity and commands citizens' loyalties. By contrast, citizens or subjects of most nation-states are bound by commitments to common kinship, religion, ethnicity, and territorial claims. Their national loyalties, and means of expressing them, are qualitatively different from the American tradition of national allegiance and loyalty, which is based on commitment to common civic principles and values as embodied in the American founding documents, such as the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and in documents that have extended and amplified the civic ideas of the founding-era, such as the

Seneca Falls Declaration of Rights and Sentiments, Martin Luther King Jr.'s Letter from the Birmingham City Jail, and landmark decisions of the United States Supreme Court. This framing question is important in its implications for assessment of civic learning in the United States because it focuses attention on the extent to which young citizens of the United States express loyalty to their nation in terms of commitments to the core principles and values of the American civic tradition rooted in the founding-era and developed from that time to the present through key events in United States history.

b. Policies

As discussed in response to Question #1, the curriculum guides of state-level education departments and school districts throughout the country address the substantive pedagogical facets of developing loyalty among American youngsters to the core civic principles and values that define American national identity. There is a pervasive civic theme in social studies curricula from grades K to 12. However, in comparison to reading/language arts and mathematics, particularly in the primary grades, the civic theme receives less time and attention. The standard United States history courses in upper-elementary and middle schools emphasize the civics theme of the origins and development of American constitutional democracy. Some students also take civics courses in the 9th grade, which treat the principles and practices of American constitutional government. After age 14 or 15 most students are also exposed to these ideals again in government and United States history courses. American traditions of developing civic loyalty through civic education involve students in development of reasoned commitments to core civic principles and values. That, in turn, necessitates critical thinking about the quality of American ideals and the gaps, during different periods of American history, between the lofty ideals and the flawed practices common in the society that either contradicted the ideals or fell far short of them.

The themes of national identity and loyalty are treated in the National Standards for Civics and Government (1994) and in CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education (1991). Further, the themes are emphasized in the Framework for the 1998 NAEP Civics Assessment. The emphasis

on national identity and loyalty in these important documents on civic education in the United States is an indicator of the significance of these topics for teaching and learning in schools.

c. Terminology

This topic of national identity and loyalty is addressed by the formal school curriculum through primary school civics lessons in social studies and through formal courses in United States history, civics, and government in the upper elementary, middle, and high school curriculum. The discussion of "Part c" in response to Question #1 applies to this response to Question #2.

d. Public Discussion/Controversy

There has been continuing debate and controversy among American educators and members of the general public about the best way to develop a sense of national identity and loyalty among American youth. One side would emphasize an approach reflected by the words of an American naval hero of the early national period, who said, "Our country . . . may she always be in the right; but our country, right or wrong." Others prefer the alternative view of Carl Schurz, a Union soldier in the Civil War and political leader of the post-war era, who said, in modification of Decatur's words, [My country], "When right, to be kept right: when wrong to be put right." Further, some Americans have expressed a "nativist" view of national identity and loyalty, which involves a narrow definition, prejudiced toward people of northern and western European ancestry, about who appropriately is or is not fully American. By contrast, others emphasize what has been called "identity politics" where ethnic identity is most salient. The majority of Americans, however, have a very broad and practically inclusive view of who may or may not be considered fully American, which emphasizes reasoned commitment to core civic principles and values as the test of loyalty and the core of national identity. For example , in a national poll of public attitudes, 75% of respondents said they thought that public schools should promote both a common cultural tradition and the diverse cultural traditions of the different population groups in America (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1994).

e. Organizations

Key national organizations that have an active interest in this topic include such professional associations as the National Council for the Social Studies, the American Political Science Association, the American Historical Association, the Organization of American Historians, and the National Council for History Education. Further, many broad-based citizens' groups are keenly interested in this topic, such as the League of Women's Voters, various military veteran's organizations, and community service organizations, such as the Rotary Clubs.

f. Sources

Sources pertaining to this set of questions include: Higham (1988), Strangers in the Land: Patterns of American Nativism; Kymlicka (1995), Multicultural Citizenship; Spinner (1994), The Boundaries of Citizenship: Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality in the Liberal State; and Ueda (1994), Postwar Immigrant America.

3. What are 14 -or 15-year-olds expected or likely to have learned about relations between their countries and other countries? Which countries or groups of countries do they learn about as past, present, or future threats, and what is the nature of these threats? Which countries are allies? What are young people likely to learn about the nature and appropriateness of the role their country has played and continues to play in global and regional spheres of influence? What supranational structures or international organizations are thought to be important enough to have a place in the young person's awareness or loyalty? How important is it in this country to speak of young person's awareness or loyalty? How important is it in this country to speak of young people acquiring "a global perspective," or an "international outlook," and how are those terms interpreted?

a. Importance

Over the past 15 years or so, many organizations and professional education journals have encouraged teachers to infuse a global perspective into their instruction—across subjects and grade levels. Textbook publishers, developers of supplementary materials, and presenters of various professional development programs claim to integrate an international or global perspective into their models for instruction. However, there is little evidence that these efforts have been successful. The United States Army had to develop extensive training for troops sent to the war in the Persian Gulf to inform them about where they were going, the background of the conflict, Arab culture, and related "do's and don'ts." Had efforts to attune our youth to global realities, issues, and sensitivities been successful, much of this instruction could have been avoided. Culture days, once-a-year special events in which students taste the food, try on the traditional dress, and observe indigenous art forms, are not sufficient to develop the international knowledge and sensitivities that many feel citizens of the 1990s need. Many argue that we need to reframe our efforts at cross-cultural education to give greater emphasis to globally shared challenges and concerns related to international economics, communication, the environment, and human rights. Some educators recommend grounding teaching less in cultural comparisons that emphasize

differences and more in the moral obligations of people as national and local citizens in an increasingly interdependent world.

Although this question was not selected by the National Expert Panel as one of the seven highest priorities, there was much agreement by the Panel members that children in the United States lack sufficient knowledge about other countries. In addition, press reports, movements such as the initiatives limiting social services for illegal aliens, and responses to some of the 1996 presidential candidates indicate much xenophobia and a view of immigration and immigrants as threats to the nation's security and unity.

On the other hand, many educators in the United States emphasize the importance of cross-cultural knowledge and understanding as the world grows "smaller" and as citizens in the United States continue to view themselves and are viewed by others as the single remaining "world power." Such a position of world leadership carries with it a responsibility with implications for civic education. Many feel that American citizens tend to be parochial and ethnocentric in their dealings with peoples of other nations and that this comes to be reflected in the beliefs and actions of students.

b. Policies

Policies vary in different states and school districts. The newly developed Curriculum Standards for the Social Studies (NCSS, 1994), Geography for Life: National Geography Standards (Geography Education Standards Project, 1994), and the Guidelines for Global and International Studies Education (Collins, Czarra, & Smith, 1996) contain recommendations for local curriculum planners that address this area. The National Standards for History (National Center for History in the Schools, 1996) and National Standards for Civics and Government (Center for Civic Education, 1994) also address this area, but to a lesser extent.

c. Terminology

Social studies, world history, world geography, global studies, global issues, global

perspectives, and European history. It should be noted that in the current period of reform, curricula in many states and local school districts are undergoing redesign, and additional course titles are forthcoming.

d. Public Discussion or Controversy

There has been much public discussion and controversy about "global education." Many people see promotion of interest in, empathy with, and the development of linkages with other countries as a threat to patriotism. Some people worry that allegiance to one's own government would be lost if there was a "world government." Others scoff at such an assertion and point to a "poor track record" of the United Nations. Today, many people from business and industry call for increased efforts to prepare students for an increasingly internationalized workplace. There are also those who have questioned the proper role of educators in promoting global connections—whether they should attempt to take the lead or merely serve as a participant. Attacks on the Center for Teaching International Relations (CTIR) served as tangible evidence that there are those who vigorously oppose global education. Additionally, differences in views about international studies are associated with specific policy concerns, notably, immigration, human rights, and the environment.

Other concerns and issues include such questions as how the media influence young people's perceptions of other people and nations; the degree to which Americans understand and are concerned about whether and to what extent other nations place value on knowing about other peoples of the world; the perceptions and beliefs Americans hold regarding Europe's economic development efforts versus the United States efforts to right trade imbalances; and cross-national views regarding, "North-South" and "First, Second, and Third World" conceptions and similarly questionable ways to organize the world with words.

e. Organizations

World Bank, Atlantic Council, Foreign Policy Association, International Studies Association, Mershon Center, American Forum for Global Education, Stanford Program

(SPICE),World Affairs Council, the Center for Teaching International Relations (CTIR), the Global Awareness program in Miami, the Global Education project in Chicago, the American Enterprise Institute, Eagle Forum, National Geographic Alliances .

f. Sources

Time (international/bilingual report), content analyses to determine presentation of "enemies" and "allies", the Roper Center, Gallup organization, all media polling organizations, Weekly Reader, United Nations Association, Dissertations (content analyses of textbooks for treatment of various countries), research by Merry Merryfield, and centers noted in e) above.

4. What are young people expected or likely to have learned by age 14 or 15 about the role of the military and the police as guardians of the nations security? Is the military service mandatory (for both genders)? Is it viewed as a normal and important part of preparation for adulthood and citizenship? Under what conditions is opposition to the military or the police respected or condoned, and under what conditions is it negatively viewed or penalized? Under what conditions is the young person expected or likely to learn to be compliant and not to question these authorities (trusting in fair treatment), as opposed to learning ways to deal with perceived misuse of power by the military or police? Are there likely to be differences in the ways in which individuals of different social classes or ethnic groups view these authorities?

a. Importance

Members of the National Expert Panel said that although this question is interesting, they thought it was of lesser importance than others to understanding civic education in our national context. Moreover, because experiences in the family, community, and with the media are probably more influential than the school in this area, it is particularly difficult to generalize about student learning related to the military and police.

The United States Constitution places the military under civilian control; the President is Commander and Chief of the Armed Services, and the chiefs of the services report to the President. Mandatory military service for males has come and gone, depending on the felt need for a draft to ensure security during times of war and peace. Currently, there is an all volunteer military in the United States. The military provides opportunities for employment, leadership, and for many people, upward mobility. Since World War II the armed services have provided leadership and advancement opportunities for people of color and more recently for women. Traditionally the public has held the military in high esteem, as evidenced by national polls. However there remains some residual negative feelings since Vietnam, which is evident in some schools. The fact that many people in 1995 turned to Colin Powell as a possible presidential candidate who seemed to be "above politics" indicates the high esteem with which military leaders

are held by many. Furthermore, the criticism that President Clinton received by some for not serving in the military at the time of the Vietnam War attests to the importance many give to military service. On the other hand among some people, residual negative feelings toward the military have persisted since the Vietnam War period.

Although police forces were traditionally composed mostly of white males, that situation has changed in recent decades. Moreover, the police force has provided leadership opportunities for many women and people of color. Young children are often taught that the police are "community helpers." Further, some police departments have public liaison officers who talk to students, particularly in the middle school, for the purpose of establishing good relationships. The education programs of the American Bar Association have supported efforts for law-related education (LRE) in schools, which includes attention to the police and courts as well as increasing knowledge about civil and criminal law. In schools where drugs, vandalism, and gangs are not uncommon students' views of police as protectors and as adversaries may be more complex. In the 1990s reactions to the Rodney King incident and to Mark Fuhrman's testimony in the O. J. Simpson trial revealed the deep distrust of police that exists in many communities where white police have discriminated against or abused people of color. The American public watches many television shows and movies that focus on police stories. From such exposure, many students have learned about citizen rights with respect to the police, and they learn that police are subject to restraints.

b. Policies

Treatment of these topics in school varies by state and local school district.

c. Terminology

Students learn about "community helpers" including the police in elementary social studies classes and they may learn about police in secondary social studies courses (history, government, civics, law, social studies) and units on the law. They learn about the military, particularly in

wartime, in courses titled "social studies" or "history."

d. Public Discussion/Controversy

There has not been controversy over the inclusion of the police or the military as topics in the curriculum. Since the Vietnam War, there has, however, been controversy about having military recruiters at some high schools and about Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) units in schools. Today ROTC programs are more likely to be found in urban schools with a high proportion of people of color and in areas near military bases than they are in white suburban schools.

e. Organizations

The American Bar Association (ABA), state and local law related education (LRE) programs, the Constitutional Rights Foundation (CRF), Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC).

f. Sources

The above organizations may have research on the effects of their programs as they relate to attitudes toward the police. See Roper polls on attitudes toward police and military. See research by James Mackey on attitudes toward the police. Contact chairpersons of political science/social science departments in the United States military academies for references on civilian control of the military and public support for the military.

5. What are young people expected or likely to have learned by age 14 or 15 about those belonging to "minority groups" or other groups that see themselves as disadvantaged or disenfranchised (as defined by ethnicity, race, immigrant status or other characteristics) in relation to the rights and obligations of citizenship? What groups, if any, are viewed as most subject to discrimination? What can be said about the social identities advocated for young people from minority groups, on a continuum ranging from assimilation to pluralism? What are young people expected to learn about citizenship from the experience of immigrants and their families? How are instances of past discrimination or oppression to be dealt with? Are attitudes and behaviors of respect and tolerance toward some or all of these groups encouraged explicitly or implicitly, and how?

a. Importance

This is a crucial question in the United States case study. Americans live in a color-conscious society where the issue of race is integrally tied to class. In the United States, disenfranchisement or powerlessness is also related to gender, religion, sexual orientation, age, and disabilities. Students do know about the struggle for equal rights; however, it is not clear what students are learning to do in the struggle for equity.

The United States is a country made up of many different groups who have equal constitutional rights. In the United States, many people from communities that have experienced discrimination prefer not to be called "minorities" because in the largest 25 school districts, the majority of students are students of color. Additionally, for some, the term "minority" connotes inferiority. Citizenship is not limited by ethnicity or country of birth. If a person was not born in the United States, but has become a naturalized citizen, she or he enjoys the same rights as native born citizens, with the exception that he or she cannot become President of the United States.

What do students learn in schools about people of color and other "minority" groups? Students learn about the civil rights movement, the fight of white abolitionists and African Americans to end slavery, the efforts of Martin Luther King, Jr., the immigration of people from

all over the globe to the United States, and that Native Americans are indigenous people. In addition, some teachers provide information about the fight for women's rights in their courses.

How do children from under represented groups feel about themselves? This is an extremely complicated question. The issue of assimilation is a difficult one for many students of color. When the "typical" American is depicted as someone with blond hair, fair skin, and blue eyes, students from African American, Latino, Asian Pacific American, and Native American communities may feel inferior or not valued. Some urban communities have adopted an Afrocentric curriculum which focuses upon the experiences of African Americans in the hopes of building bridges between what the African American child knows and skills schools are directed to teach. Many educators believe when the curriculum is compatible with the learner's culture, prior knowledge, and beliefs, the learner is more likely to learn. Community groups like the Anti Defamation League of B'nai B'rith have long provided materials to schools which are anti-racist and aimed at easing racial and religious tensions.

How are instances of past discrimination and oppression dealt with? In history lessons, students learn about slavery, segregation, and the treatment of Native Americans. Some classes talk about gender stereotyping and discrimination.

There are numerous ways in which some teachers assist students in understanding how everyone is affected by prejudice. In some communities, students attend a camp called "Anywhere, USA" to talk about and confront their feelings of racism. This has been effective because students have the opportunity to interact with others who may come from communities different from their own.

The journey to equity in the United States is a slow one. Although most teachers encourage their students to move away from discrimination and move towards respect and acceptance, it is a difficult struggle. Many people believe that racism, sexism, and classism remain entrenched in society and for that reason the daily challenge to overcome them in American classrooms is not easy.

b. Policies

The United States does not have a national curriculum. Rather, local school districts and state departments of education formulate and mandate the curriculum of schools. However, there are federal regulations that shape some policies in this area. For example, the Lau v Nichols Supreme Court case established the policy that when students come to school with a home language other than English, schooling must be provided in their native language; otherwise students may not be receiving the same access to education as English speakers. Other legislative acts authorize federal funds for special education programs and students in low income areas.

c. Terminology

"Multicultural" education is used variously to mean teaching about diverse groups and/or teaching diverse students. "Minority" groups and "people of color"--see above . Although social studies/history and English/language arts are the areas of the curriculum that are affected the most, the entire school can be affected.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

There is a great deal of controversy over the inclusion of information about under represented racial and ethnic groups, and there is periodic controversy over gender issues. Efforts to be more inclusive of racial diversity have been seen by some historians and other citizens as balkanizing or divisive. However, other historians and educators are concerned that unity may mean uniformity, and will not allow for the inclusion of knowledge about the experiences of all American groups. Moreover some believe unity may no longer be possible if groups are to realize their own particular identities.

e. Organizations

NAME--National Association for Multicultural Education and NABE--National Association for Bilingual Education.

f. Sources

Banks & Banks (1993), Multicultural education issues and perspectives; Bennett (1990), Comprehensive multicultural education; Davidman & Davidman (1994), Teaching with a multicultural perspective: A practical guide; Gay (1994), At the essence of learning: Multicultural education; Grant (1995), Educating for diversity: An anthology of multicultural voices; Kallen (1970), Culture and democracy in the United States; Ogbu (1992), Understanding cultural diversity and learning; and Sadker & Sadker (1994), Failing at Fairness: How American schools cheat girls. Critics include Schlesinger (1991), The disuniting of America: Reflections on a multicultural society; D'Souza (1991), Illiberal education: The politics of race and sex on campus; and D'Souza (1995), The end of racism: Principles for a multicultural society.

6. What are young people in their role as citizens expected or likely to have acquired with regard to the understanding of religion or the acquisition of religious-based values by age 14 or 15? What is expected of young people from families who do not share dominant religions or moral beliefs? Is the treatment of religious minorities or nonbelievers an issue in citizenship education?

Religion is not a school subject in the formal curriculum of public schools in the United States because schools as agencies of government cannot support an established religion. Students are, however, expected to learn about the first amendment principles of free expression of religion and the "wall of separation" between the "state " and "church." Notable Supreme Court cases interpreting clauses of the first amendment may be taught in middle and high school civics and government classes, particularly the cases identified with an *: (a) Religious Expression and Free Exercise--Cantwell v Connecticut (1940); Sherbert v Verner (1963); *Wisconsin v Yoder (1972); Goldman v Weinberger (1986); Employment Division Department of Human Resources of Oregon v Smith (1990). (b) Religious Establishment--Everson v Board of Education (1947); Lemon v Kurtzman; Early v Di Censo (1971); Lamb's Chapel v Center Moriches Union Free School District (1993); Edwards v Aguillard (1987); County of Allegheny v ACLU (1989); *Wallace v Jaffra (1985); Lee v Weisman (1992).

In elementary school, students are taught that many early immigrants to the American colonies came seeking religious freedom, and that religious freedom, as protected by the Constitution, continued to be a reason for immigration into the United States in the 19th and 20th centuries. Notwithstanding what Thomas Jefferson referred to in 1802 as the "wall of separation" principle, students also learn in and out of school that religion and religious worship make important contributions to American society and politics. Families and churches/temples teach religion to children and youth and organize activities for them. Public schools can, and do, teach about the presence and contributions to America's pluralistic society of religious denominations and groups. Public schools do this by using a secular approach to teaching about religion and its

influence on societies. Parochial and private schools, on the other hand, often teach religious beliefs.

a. Importance

The absence of a mandated or formal course of study on religion reduces the prominence of this subject relative to others covered by the public schools. But, currently, there is controversy about the absence of religious education. There is a "religious reawakening" in American society associated with the widespread popular concern about a decline in moral standards to guide behavior. A surge in registration in denominational schools and much home schooling is associated, in large part, with a belief that teaching children religious values is a necessary component of moral training. There is also concern that sensitivity to the separation of church and state has caused some educators to avoid teaching about the role of religion in history and society.

b. Policies

There are local and state guidelines about the schools and religious expression and teaching religion. Moreover, the court cases cited previously establish the parameters within which those policies apply.

c. Terminology

There is no particular terminology regarding religion. Teachers and school administrators are very sensitive about the "establishment" (separation) clause and about the conflicts over any school involvement/sanction of religious activities. The climate of religious preferences is specific to the community. Social studies and history are the courses in which the subject is addressed.

d. Public Discussion/ Controversy

There is considerable current controversy and a movement to include non-denominational teaching about the history and values of religion in the public schools. Popular books, including

ones by William Bennett and Gertrude Himmelfarb, and political speeches, such as ones by President Clinton in 1995, address this issue. School assemblies and events such as graduation or football games are occasions when there are sometimes disputes over the presence or reference to religious expression. The division of opinion on these issues is reflected in national opinion polls. For example, while 66% of the public said they favored nondevotional instruction about various world religions, 33% opposed it (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1994). Sevent-five percent of the public reported favoring an amendment to the United States Constitution to permit prayers to be spoken in public schools; 25 % opposed such a change (Elam & Rose, 1995).

e. Organizations

American Civil Liberties Union, Anti Defamation League, National Conference of Christians and Jews, People for the American Way, Christian Coalition, Family Forum, Family Foundation.

f. Sources

Roper Center Polls on popular identification with specific denominations; church attendance; beliefs on the importance and position of religion in United States society and politics. Guidelines for teaching liturgical music from the National Council for Music Education. Reports, statements from each of the organizations listed in e.

7. What are young people expected or likely to have learned concerning the use of a particular official language or languages within the nation by age 14 or 15? Are young people expected to respect the use of languages other than the national language(s)? What are they expected to learn about whether and when individuals should be able to use other languages in public settings (including schools and businesses) and in private settings such as the home?

a. Importance

The consensus of our panel is that this question was not as centrally related to civic education as are other framing questions. This is not to say that language instruction, language acquisition , and the use of different languages by minority populations, particularly when they are concentrated within certain regions such as the southwest and inner cities, are not important topics in a cultural and educational sense. Rather, the issue's direct relevance to civic education is unclear in terms of its impact on instruction and student outcomes. Limited research on the relationship between bilingual education and civic education, the question of whether such a relationship may exist or is even significant, and the greater centrality of other framing questions to civic education in the United States led the panel to give less priority to this framing question than to others.

b. Policies

Freedom of speech, in whatever language one speaks, is guaranteed by the United States Constitution; and there are no constitutional or legal restrictions on the use of language other than English in home or business. In the Supreme Court case Lau v Nichols, the policy was established that when students come to school with a home language other than English, schooling must be provided in their home language to ensure equal access to education for all. For this reason, bilingual education is provided by schools for non-English speaking students, but the intent, in theory, is that the students will receive such education for the purpose of not falling behind in regular subjects because of language deficiencies. In most states a student is expected to eventually leave full time bilingual instruction, enter a transitional bilingual phase, and then reach

full English competency, thereby, leaving the bilingual program for "mainstream" instruction. Whether this works in practice is an educational question of national concern, but not centrally related to civic education--the focus of this study. However, there is a political movement for a constitutional amendment to declare English the official language of the United States. The movement is a response to concerns that immigration without some common means of communication and cultural cohesion could undermine civic unity.

c. Terminology

Bilingual education: Providing instruction in a child's native language if it is other than English. Bilingual education can be full, part time, or transitional. Transitional bilingual instruction is in "sheltered English," i.e., students take regular curriculum courses in English, but they are "sheltered" from competition with more proficient native English speakers. They would still receive some daily instruction in their native language. Sheltered English instruction also has some instructional methodological differences from regular teaching. "Mainstream" - full instruction in English in all subjects. A bilingual student, who becomes proficient in the English language, would exit a bilingual program and enter the mainstream. Most American students are in the mainstream.

English as Second Language, also known as "ESL," or English for speakers of other Languages, "ESOL," is instruction in basic English usually given to new arrivals to the country. Whereas a bilingual class will consist of students who speak the same language and whose teacher is proficient in that language, an ESL class may consist of students speaking several languages and the teacher speaking only in English.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

There is public discussion and controversy over bilingual education in the United States and whether English should be made America's official language, perhaps through a constitutional amendment. Legislation to abolish bilingual education has been proposed. In 1998 California

voters passed an initiative to place limits on bilingual education in their state. This movement is fueled by several factors. There is opposition among some members of the public to large numbers of Asian and Hispanic immigrants arriving within the last two decades which some opponents perceive as negatively changing the composition of America's population. Others cite educational failures of bilingual programs, such as inflated bureaucracies, high costs, and low test scores. Some opponents of bilingual education also argue that it is contrary to the historic mission of public schools to not teach English to immigrant students. However, bilingual education is the law of the land, required by a Supreme Court decision (Lau v Nichols), and mandated by federal legislation reinforced by state laws.

e. Organizations

United States English, Modern Language Association, numerous foreign language teaching organizations, national and state associations for bilingual education.

f. Sources

The United States Census has statistics on language spoken in the home. The United States Department of Education and state Departments of Education have statistics on numbers of students enrolled in bilingual and ESL programs.

Weekly news magazines often run articles focusing on flaws in bilingual programs. Interestingly enough there seems to be little opposition to ESL programs, probably because ESL is perceived as what was done traditionally for generations of immigrants - turning them into English speakers.

8. What are young people by age 14 or 15 expected or likely to have learned about whether the rights and obligations of citizenship differ (in law or in fact) according to gender? Are young people taught that men and women have different rights and responsibilities of citizenship? If differences exist between men and women in the society in actual levels of political participation or if there are very few women in positions of national leadership, are these matters discussed as problems or issues with young people, or are they largely ignored?

a. Importance

There have been major political, social, legal, cultural, and economic changes in the status of women in the United States over the last 30 years. Although the federal Constitution does not have an Equal Rights Amendment, legally, if not always in fact, females possess virtually equal opportunities in political matters. Females can vote, campaign, and hold political office. It is not uncommon for women to be active in local, state, and national politics; however, the growing percentage of elected female officials remains far below the percentage of women in the total population. Although there is no elected female official of national prominence such as the President, Vice President, or party leader in Congress, there are a few visible women senators, members of the Cabinet, and leaders of non-governmental agencies. The two women on the Supreme Court have high status but are not elected, nor visible on the daily news. The First Lady, Mrs. Clinton, is prominent but not elected.

Consequently, there are still relatively few female leaders to hold up to students as examples of women who exercise political power in the United States. Moreover, high school courses in civics and government tend not to confront the issue of the under representation of women political leaders (Hahn, 1996). However, United States history courses now give more attention to women political activists of the past than they did in the 1950s and 1960s. Still, there has been little research on the extent to which students learn about the role of gender in civic life before ages 14 or 15.

In some areas of society, changes are being made. Women in the United States are a

greater percentage of entering law and medical students than they are of elected political officials. Women are almost 50% of entering law students, the majority of candidates in Ph.D. programs, and the majority of college students. Women are entering traditional male fields of police work and the military. There are also more favorable portrayals of women in popular magazines, television and film, than there were in the past but the dominant image of a political leader still tends not to be a woman.

This is an important question for our country, particularly in analyzing knowledge, attitudes, and implications in actual practice.

b. Policies

National, state, and local curriculum goals presuppose equality of gender in course opportunities, athletic programs (physical education classes have not been separated by gender for years) and the generic right to learn. It is illegal to discriminate on the basis of gender in American public schools. However, private same sex schools exist. They do not receive public funding although there is some support for that idea. Supporters of schools for young women often cite the opportunities for leadership, role models, and supportive climate they provide, saying they nurture political as well as other leaders.

c. Terminology

Gender is used more often than "sex" or male/female, e.g., gender differences, gender gap. Women's movement, Women's Studies (usually college level), Women's History Month, are commonly used terms. Self-esteem is a commonly used term in education particularly in terms of addressing issues of low self-esteem in females caused by classroom practices, such as those raised by the American Association of University Women's report, School Girls. It is hypothesized that low self- esteem reduces academic achievement. High self-esteem and educational achievement might further the active participation of adult women in the political process. "Feminism," refers to the philosophy, literature, and beliefs of the women's movement

for equal rights and opportunities. It is sometimes used pejoratively by opponents of that movement but with pride by supporters. Instruction about women's political roles occurs in social studies, civics, history, and government courses.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

It is an accepted part of the curriculum to discuss gender differences and the historical development of the two women's movements. Additionally, the roles of women in the abolitionist movement, the suffrage movement, and progressive reform movements are discussed in United States history classes. Knowledge of women's leadership in the union movement is perhaps not as great. Contemporary issues relative to this topic are sometimes considered in civics education with the exception previously noted of government classes that do not analyze factors contributing to the under representation of women. Increasing amounts of material are available for classroom use, but factors that may limit implementation in practice are the personal interest of a teacher in this subject, the socioeconomic level of the community, demands of other required curricula, and the attitudes of a local community towards feminism and the women's movement in general. Despite the acceptance of gender equality in principle, some controversy exists in terms of its implementation. Matters of remaining concern that could be discussed relative to citizen support for alternative public policies are: growing but still limited participation of women in politics, lack of sufficient female political role models, gender differences in earnings, a gender gap in participation and success in science and mathematics, gender differences in treatment of pupils by classroom teachers, conditions of low-income and minority women, increased stress resulting from combining work and family responsibilities, and concerns about the deterioration of family structures represented by high divorce rates, large numbers of single parent households, and large percentages of out-of-wedlock births. Other issues which citizens are confronting include the relationship between illegitimate births and poverty and social problems that develop in later life, particularly among males, who are raised in single parent households below the poverty line.

A 16-year-old who has a child out of wedlock may drop out of school and will probably

not take a formal civics or government course; she is not likely to become a viable participant in the democratic process. Opposition to feminism often has a conservative religious base resting on a desire to preserve what is regarded as the traditional family structure. The question of whether this inhibits or encourages civic education is open to discussion and research; for example, conservative Christian women may actively engage in politics in order to gain control of local school boards.

Clearly, issues of gender are a significant part of civic education, popular discussion, scholarly research, and American society and culture in general. America's high rate of spousal abuse, battered women, rape and female homicide victims caused by husbands and boy friends, is a matter of grave concern. In a society where physical abuse of women is common, one can infer that individuals who are abusive have little sense of civic responsibility and citizenship in terms of having learned to respect the rights of others. Constant portrayal of violence against women in film and on TV may reinforce, as well as reflect, a condition where a large number of males never learned peaceful methods of problem-solving. Violence against women and men is a problem that is only rarely addressed and discussed in civic education.

e. Organizations

American Association of University Women, League of Women Voters, Feminist Press, the National Women's History Project, Wellesly College, the Organization of American Historians, the American Historical Association, the Equal Opportunity Employment Commission, the Census Bureau.

f. Sources

Above organizations plus The U. S. History Report Card (NAEP, 1994) and other NAEP studies; Linda Fay Williams' research on women/gender issues; Hahn, 1996; American Association of University Women survey; Women and the Constitution (Carter Center); Ruth Mandel, Rutgers University Center for the Study of Women in Politics; section on Women in Politics of the American Political Science Association.

9. *What are young people of age 14 or 15 expected or likely to have learned about the rights of the family relative to the state? To what extent is the young person to be taught that the rights of the family supersede those of the state and to what extent is he/she taught that they are subordinate?*

a. Importance:

In the United States, constitutional rights are based on individual rights, rather than family rights. Family rights are better understood as a social policy issue, with the very meaning of "family" under dispute. Often the "rights of the family" are privately learned at home. In some cases state laws are used to protect family rights; in other cases family rights give way to the general welfare.

The constitutional right that parents have to direct the upbringing and education of their children was established in Pierce v Society of Sisters (1925), based on the due process clause. Most often, however, citizen input to education is implemented through locally elected school boards and the tradition of "local control" of schools. Further, as some schools are adopting "site-based management" parents are represented on school governing bodies. Because such local control fosters great diversity, there are simultaneous efforts toward greater similarity across the country via such things as Goals 2000 and voluntary national curriculum standards that are presented as recommendations for local decision-makers. Overall, education in the United States, including civics education, is a complex network of interconnections between the family and the community, state, and nation.

Students learn about family rights at home and at school, and teachers are sensitive to the impact of particular topics on the lives of their students in light of their families values. The idea of family rights at times conflicts with the schooling process. Students may be aware that parents can request that their children be withdrawn from instruction that conflicts with their religious beliefs. In the United States parents do make demands of the school and will complain to the principal if they do not like what or how a teacher is teaching. Conservative parents have complained about

some topics being addressed (sex education, homosexuality, gender roles), so that there has been a chilling effect in some communities where teachers decide to omit and avoid controversial issues. Students may perceive that their parents' complaints can influence policies in the school. On the other hand, when schools present programs related to problems of child abuse, children may learn that the state can intervene on behalf of children. Teachers are required to report suspected instances of child abuse and neglect; implementation, however, is uneven.

b. Policies

The Supreme Court has set important guidelines as in the Pierce and Abington cases. Within such guidelines state laws vary. The formal curriculum tends to be relatively silent on this issue.

c. Terminology

Although citizens tend not to talk explicitly about "family rights" (Pierce exception), students come to understand their family rights through the school climate and teachings about individual rights.

d. Public Discussion/Controversy

The strength of family rights can be appreciated in the fact that states have long permitted home schooling. In recent years that movement has been growing and practiced primarily by members of the conservative religious right. Conservatives have also pressed for legislation such as to protect the privacy of the family limiting questions that can be asked students in research studies; similarly, they have objected to values clarification lessons that do not respect family privacy. In recent years there has been heightened concern about the family and hotly debated "family values." Issues before the Supreme Court deal with the rights of homosexual families, at the same time a few leading members of Congress are saying that homosexuals are immoral. Both ends of the political spectrum argue family issues while the definition of the American family

continues to be redefined in different ways.

e. Organizations

The growing concern over family life in the United States can be understood by looking at activity from both the Christian Coalition and the National Children's' Defense Fund.

f. Sources

Although the issue is not addressed in civics education research, an abundance of demographic data shows how American families have changed during the recent past. Whereas married couples with children once were the societal norm, that lifestyle is now the exception to the rule. For example, Hodgkinson reported in 1985 that only about 11 % of American families fit the traditional description of a working father, a mother at home with the children, and two or more school-age children. By the late 1990s, that percentage had dropped to four percent. Family related issues include the growing number of "latchkey" children, single-parent families, teenage pregnancy rates, and divorce rates. Discussion about the role of fathers in the context of family rights and responsibilities also is of growing importance . Similarly policies related to parental leave and child care are being discussed.

Because "family rights" has not been explicitly addressed in civic education, research and other reports do not focus on what students learn about family rights. It is difficult to obtain data on this topic as it is worded.

10. To what extent are young people expected or likely to have learned by age 14 or 15 that economic principles (such as free market principles vs. state intervention and control over the provision of goods and services) are connected with government or political issues? Are young people to be taught that it is the state's responsibility to give protection from such threats as unemployment, illness, homelessness, or hunger, or are they to be taught that these are private matters which are not the responsibility of the state? If youth unemployment is high, is this dealt with as a political issue in school?

a. Importance

This is an important question because Americans have believed that education is the cornerstone of democracy and the avenue to equal opportunity for all; they established and supported systems of free, public education in every one of the 50 states and have required attendance until students reach a specified age. However, Americans have come to realize that the kind of education which may have been adequate in the past is not sufficient to the future. The demands of society and of a global economy have changed drastically. To be successful in the new world environment, students will need both more and more rigorous education.

Because the nation's political leaders recognized the need for change, then President George Bush and the nation's governors met at an education summit in 1989 and announced new goals for education. At the time Bill Clinton was Governor of Arkansas and an ardent advocate of establishing national goals and more challenging standards for American students. Those goals later were codified with the passage of the Goals 2000: Educate America Act of 1994. Then President Clinton hailed that legislation as one of the signal achievements of his administration.

One of the most important goals set forth in the Educate America Act of 1994 is that "by the year 2000, all students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter including...civics and government...and economics...so that they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment.

To specify the nature of that "challenging subject matter," professional organizations were

asked to develop content standards. Content standards are an explicit statement of "what students should know and be able to do" by the time they complete grades 4, 8, and 12. Content standards "indicate the knowledge and skills, the ways of thinking, working, communicating, reasoning, and investigating and the most important and enduring ideas, concepts, issues, dilemmas, and knowledge essential to the discipline that should be taught and learned in school."

Voluntary National Content Standards for Economics have since been developed by the National Council on Economic Education. The National Council, however, has long been very active in promoting economic education for students in kindergarten through grade 12. It also is important to note that the National Standards for Civics and Government (developed by the Center for Civic Education with support from the Office of Educational Research of the United States Department of Education) and the Curriculum Standards for Social Studies (developed by the National Council for the Social Studies) include many economic topics and issues. That is not surprising because the relationship between education in economics and for citizenship in a constitutional democracy is closely linked. Most public issues involve persisting controversies over the allocation of scarce resources, the distribution of power among competing interest groups, or the affirmation of particular values. If Americans are to participate competently and responsibly in the monitoring and influencing of public policy, authors of the standards believe they must develop a conceptual understanding of and an historical and contemporary perspective on economics, politics, and government. They also must learn to think critically, listen with discernment, and communicate honestly and effectively to function as citizens of democratic communities and in a market economy.

Research studies, however, point almost uniformly to deficiencies in knowledge of economics among 12th grade students, college seniors, and the general public. Fewer studies have been conducted among younger students. Even so, the findings in respect to economic literacy among older students and the general public are instructive. One important study entitled A National Survey of American Economic Literacy was completed in late 1992. The study was conducted jointly by the National Center for Research in Economic Education (University of

Nebraska-Lincoln) and The Gallup Organization (Princeton, New Jersey).

That survey found high rates of "economic illiteracy" among Americans. The general population could correctly answer only 30 %, and high school seniors only 35 %, of 19 multiple-choice and open-ended questions about fundamental economic issues. The results were somewhat better for college seniors, who could correctly answer slightly more than half of the questions. Among the general public, 83 % characterized their own economic understanding as fair or poor. Nearly all of that group—96 %—said schools should do more to teach students about how the economy works. And, predictably, those who fared best in the survey said they had taken an economics course in high school or college.

By the time young Americans are 14- or 15-years-old, they probably have not had a course in economics per se. Formal courses usually are reserved for students in their senior year in high school, however, units of instruction in economics of several weeks duration often are incorporated into required courses in civics at the ninth or tenth grades. Economic topics also are included in required courses in American history. Even so, adolescents often do not see the connection between political and economic issues, unless their teachers or parents specifically draw that relationship to their attention.

Students' knowledge of and attitudes toward economics is influenced by the media and conversations among adults in their homes, as well as by formal instruction in schools. Teachers and textbooks generally adhere to the generalizations in respect to the role of government recommended by the National Council on Economic Education (National Council on Economic Education, 1997; Saunders & Gilliard, 1995).

In American schools, students generally are taught that individuals, not the state, are responsible for their own economic well-being. Individuals are expected to become independent and industrious workers who seek to better their condition by preparing themselves for profitable employment and who continue to upgrade their skills. Americans, however, generally agree that government should provide a "safety net." Minimal and temporary assistance, they believe, should be given to those in need, the hungry, the ill, the homeless, and the unemployed. There is

disagreement, however, about how long such assistance should be continued and whether assistance should come primarily or exclusively from government or from private, charitable organizations. Teachers of 14- and 15-year-olds also report that their students often have mixed feelings about who is responsible or "at fault" when someone is in need of economic assistance.

Unemployment continues to be an economic issue of great concern to Americans. It was the issue of "greatest concern" among respondents in all groups included in the 1992 survey mentioned earlier. More recent polls conducted by the Gallup organizations and the Wall Street Journal indicate that it still is a major concern. Results of a Reuters Poll released in November, 1995, showed that Americans considered unemployment the second most important economic problem. The nation's deficit was first. Both blue collar and white collar workers have been affected by the disappearance of good paying jobs in industrial plants and corporate downsizing and mergers. Students, therefore, often have first-hand knowledge of the meaning of unemployment from their families.

The employment prospects for American youth differ depending upon where they live, whether or not they have dropped out of school, and the skills they possess. Youth, even 14- and 15-year-olds, in more affluent neighborhoods and in the suburbs have no trouble finding jobs in fast-food restaurants and supermarkets, as "babysitters," or doing "odd jobs" for neighbors. For youth in inner cities, however, the picture is very different. Unemployment for high school "dropouts" can run as high as 30% to 50%.

The National Council on Economic Education recommends generalizations, which appear at the end of this section, for teaching about unemployment. Teachers of 14 and 15-year-olds report that their students generally take exception to the recommendation of the Council in respect to the minimum wage. Youth, by and large, favor raising the minimum wage. They also tend to believe that the federal government should be more aggressive in its efforts to reduce unemployment, assist workers needing retraining, and prevent discrimination in the workplace based on gender, race, or ethnicity.

b. Policies

As noted above, curriculum policies vary by state and school district. Some states require a semester of economics for high school graduation. The National Council on Economic Education and the Standards documents produced by CCE and NCSS make recommendations to schools about the teaching of economics.

c. Terminology

Most economics instruction is infused into social studies courses to age 14. After that time, about half of the students take a one-semester course in economics.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

In some areas, Chambers of Commerce have lobbied for a required course on "the free enterprise system." Others have objected to that approach and argued instead for an emphasis on economic analysis and decision-making. This topic is not now as contentious as others. Most Americans would agree that students ought to learn about economic issues as part of their preparation for citizenship.

e. Organizations:

Economics America: National Council on Economic Education (formerly Joint Council of Economic Education), Junior Achievement, Agency for Instructional Technology, United States Internal Revenue Service (special units on taxation for middle and high school students), National League of Cities, United States Conference of Mayors, National Association of Counties, United States Chamber of Commerce, The Business Roundtable, National Conference of State Legislatures

f. Sources

Contact above organizations for relevant research. Relevant Excerpts from A Framework For Economic Education follow:

From A Framework for Teaching Basic Economic Concepts with Scope and Sequence Guidelines, K-12. Phillip Saunders & Jane Gilliard (eds). New York: Economics America National Council on Economic Education, 1995. pp. 69-70, 71-72.

The Role of Government

- Some goods and services are provided by the government.
- The government pays for the goods and services it provides through taxing and borrowing.
- In a market economy, the government defines and enforces property rights and provides standard units of weights, measures, and money.
- Operating government requires shifting scarce resources from the private sector of the economy to the public sector.
- Other economic roles of government include providing public goods and services; correcting for externalities; maintaining competition; redistributing income; and promoting full employment, stable prices, and reasonable rates of economic growth.
- Different taxes affect different income groups differently. Progressive taxes levy higher tax rates on high-income groups; regressive taxes levy higher tax rates on low-income groups; and proportional taxes levy identical tax rates on all income groups.
- The economic efficiency of a government policy is determined by comparing its costs and benefits.
- Public policies involve economic and political choices and are influenced by both positive and normative concepts as well as by the actions of special interest groups.
- Government policies often affect the well-being of people, businesses, and regions differently as a result of the impact of different kinds of taxes, transfer payments, laws, regulations, and the provision of goods and services that are not used equally by all groups.
- The legal and economic incidence of a tax are often different.
- Benefits of government spending programs are often shifted away from those who were initially intended to receive them.

Unemployment

• Unemployed people are those who are willing and able to work at current wage rates, but do not have jobs.

• People who are unemployed usually have less income to buy goods and services than those who have jobs.

• Governments provide income to some unemployed workers until they can find jobs.

• The labor force is composed of people age 16 and over who are either employed or actively seeking work.

• The unemployment rate is the percentage of the labor force considered to be unemployed.

• The unemployment rate rises during a recession.

• The standard measure of the unemployment rate is imperfect: it does not include discouraged workers, it does not weight part-time and full-time employment differently, nor does it account for differences in the intensity with which people look for jobs.

• Because of regional economic differences and labor force immobility, unemployment rates differ across the country.

• Unemployment rates differ for people of different ages, races, and sexes. This reflects differences in work experience, training, and skills, as well as discrimination.

• There are four types of unemployment: frictional, seasonal, structural, and cyclical. Different policies may be required to reduce each.

• The rate of unemployment is affected by the costs and benefits of searching for a job.

• Currently full employment is considered to be the employment of about 93-95 % of the labor force, allowing for frictional unemployment of about 5-7 %.

• Policies designed to deal with structural unemployment include education and training programs. Not increasing the minimum wage and reducing discrimination might also help.

• Cyclical unemployment may be reduced through policies that stimulate demand (e.g., tax cuts, government spending for public works programs).

11. If "democracy" is a central concept, what does it mean within the national context and what are young people expected or likely to learn about it by age 14 or 15? Is the concept presented primarily in an idealized form? Is the practice of democratic values everyday in the school or community included (e.g. the right to appeal decisions thought to be unjust, or to participate in decision making in schools or classroom)? With what alternatives (e.g. totalitarianism, authoritarianism, anarchy, social class exploitation) is this conception of democracy contrasted? Are young people expected or likely to learn mainly about one particular conception of democracy (e.g. about representative democracy with its emphasis on leaders chosen through contested elections; or about more participatory or direct forms of democracy; or about substantive views of democracy in which economic and social equality are argued to be of great importance)?

a. Importance

This is a very important set of questions for the United States case study. Democracy is a central concept in civic education--both in the formal and informal curriculum. Students are expected to acquire a knowledge of democracy, of alternatives to democracy in the world, of democratic values such as majority rule and minority rights, and of challenges to democracy today. Students take it for granted that their country is democratic. However, they probably have an idealized understanding of the term that grows out of the Populist notion of "will of the people." Teachers assume that students understand the concept, but their understanding tends to be superficial and does not go much beyond voting. Students are not likely to know that there are alternative conceptions of democracy (Madisonian, representative; Jeffersonian, individualism; communitarian; social justice). Although there appeared to be a clearer concept of democratic vs. undemocratic states before the end of the Cold War, today there are varieties of democracy in the world and there are advocates of alternative views even within our national context.

b. Policies

Authors of state and school district curriculum guides invariably expect schools to instill an appreciation for democracy and a democratic way of life. States differ, however, in what they teach about democracy at different grade levels. Voluntary Curriculum Standards for Social Studies and National Standards for Civics and Government recommend ways in which those goals might be reached, but it remains up to each school or district to decide on their own curriculum. In the 1950s some states instituted requirements that students study about the advantages of democracy as compared to totalitarianism, but today that policy is rarely implemented.

c. Terminology

"Democracy" as a concept is addressed explicitly in social studies, civics/citizenship, history, and economics courses. From the 1920s through the 1960s many schools offered a senior high school course in Problems of Democracy that is rarely taught today.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

There is no disagreement that democracy should be taught as a central concept. However, there has always been debate about the best form of democracy and today there continues to be public discussion about a number of issues related to different conceptions of how to make the country more democratic. In the 1950s and 1960s, political theorists emphasized pluralism as the dominant form of democracy in the United States. In the 1960s and 1970s student movements, civil libertarians, and others held up classical liberalism's protection of individual rights as the ideal. Today there are challenges to that. Ross Perot's movement appeals to the Populist tradition. In that tradition states and localities have imposed term limits on office holders. The debate over reform of the health system, for example, drew on opposing conceptions of democracy--whether to rely on the private sector or the public sector to ensure the common good. Amitai Etzioni's Communitarian movement and the writing of Robert Bellah and others assert that for too long individual rights have been emphasized at the expense of concern for the common good.

Feminists and multiculturalists argue for a view of democracy that celebrates difference rather than merely tolerates it. Numerous theorists are writing, speaking, debating, and influencing public dialogue on these issues today.

e. Organizations

National Council for the Social Studies, Center for Civic Education, the Kettering Foundation, Humphrey Institute (Boyte), Walt Whitman Center (Barber), American Federation of Teacher's Education for Democracy project, and many of the interest groups listed on the Annotated Bibliography.

f. Sources

Held (1987), Models of Democracy; Federalist and anti-federalist papers; de Tocqueville's Democracy in America; Putnam, R. D. (1993, 1995); People for the American Way study, Democracy's Next Generation; American Textbook Council; Educational Testing Service Advanced Placement Government and Politics program; American Association of Textbook Publishers; research by the Kettering Foundation; Parker (1996) Educating the democratic mind; Benjamin Barber (various books with implications for civic education); NAEP tests; Sigel & Hoskin (1991); Elshtain (1995) Democracy on Trial; Amy Guttman's work.

12. If "human rights" are a central concept, how are they defined and what do they mean, and what are young people expected to have learned about them by age 14 or 15? Are they defined primarily in a national context (with reference to rights guaranteed by the state) or an international context (with reference to documents such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights)? Are distinctions made between civil/political rights and social/economic/cultural rights? Is there attention to children's rights? To what extent is private property viewed as a right that ought to be included in such discussions?

a. Importance

Human rights is not a central concept in most social studies curricula in the United States. Students are, however, likely to learn about rights ensured by national documents that emphasize political rights. The National Council for the Social Studies (Branson & Torney-Purta, 1982) and global education centers have published materials for teachers on these topics. However, there is little if any research on the extent to which a human rights approach is actually implemented.

The issue of human rights raises many questions; however, not usually within the curriculum of civics education. Although human rights are not explicitly taught in the curriculum, the discourse is evolving. There is a need for research to explain how students acquire different conceptualizations of human rights. For example, are human rights viewed by students as a gift from the state or are there inalienable rights for all human beings that the state can protect but not give away? The issue of fundamental rights versus entitlements is confusing to students in view of the fact that the concept of human rights has exploded in recent times. For example, students might come to view special education or a free school lunch program in relationship to human rights. Thus a fundamental question of this important subject is "what do we mean when we say human rights?"

Most schools teach children's rights as political rights in the context of United States and state laws. For example, the Bill of Rights is taught as applicable to children's lives as well as adults. In only a few classes do students learn about the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. At

the high school level, for youth beyond the ages of 14 and 15 years, students learn about students' rights guaranteed through court rulings concerning freedom of expression, search and seizure, due process, corporal punishment, dress codes, rights of married students to an education, and involvement with drugs. Nevertheless, other conceptions of rights are beginning to be articulated and some students are being exposed to concern for individual, group, and national rights as understood by people outside of the American context.

b. Policies

State and school district curriculum guidelines will vary with attention to human rights.

c. Terminology

Human rights are usually taught as individual rights in the context of social studies classes.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

Human rights are not generally understood by American students in a global context. In the current political discourse some people are arguing for group rights in terms of such matters as culture and language preservation, social security, and retirement benefits for particular groups of Americans. Whereas constitutional political rights are understood to be fundamental, there is much debate with regard to economic and social rights in the national context. In addition, children in the United States experience constitutions from two levels of government--state as well as federal; in general, states use a broader conception of rights than does the federal Constitution. Other aspects of the issue revolve around differences between a national and international conceptualization of human rights.

A minority of teachers who are concerned about attention to human rights and/or who participated in global education programs that addressed this issue may make instruction in international perspectives more explicit. But not all would agree that teaching about human rights is a good thing. In the 1980s some conservative groups objected to emphasizing social and

international rights at the expense of national and political rights. In some cases, rights concerning the preservation of culture or linguistic rights are viewed from foreign contexts. One dimension of rights, property rights, is also under consideration in scholarly circles (Ely), but is taken for granted in teaching about rights of individuals.

e. Organizations

Amnesty International (4th R Newsletter), United Nations Association, Human Rights of Child Commission, law related education programs, global education programs, Constitutional Rights Foundation, Mershon Center, American Forum for Global Education

f. Sources

Global education and law related education leaders may know of research on the extent to which human rights are taught. See dissertations on We the People by R. Leming (Indiana University) and J. Butler (Vanderbilt University).

13. What are young people expected or likely to have learned about law and rule of law, the constitution (written or unwritten), the courts, the national/regional legislature, elections and other institutions of government by age 14 or 15? What sort of understanding of these matters are young people expected to achieve --one that is largely limited to memorization of facts about the structure and processes of government or one that is analytical in addressing questions of how well these structures and processes operate and why they operate as they do in the political process? Are issues such as the relations between different parts of the government, including separation of powers, important? What civic responsibilities are stressed, for example, obeying the law, paying taxes?

a. Importance

The Unites States Constitution (the document and its interpretation and implementation through Supreme Court decisions, Congressional legislation, and executive orders); the rule of law; the structure and powers of the institutions of government; and elections (at all levels of government but especially national elections for President and Congress) are all fundamental to civics instruction in the United States. Although constitutional principles, the rule of law, and the ideals of American democracy are introduced in elementary schools, most instruction about institutions and processes occurs in middle schools and high schools.

A considerable proportion of instruction on this subject--probably the majority--involves rote learning of facts about constitutional provisions, the structure of government, the organizing principles of separation of powers, checks and balances, and federalism; and the qualifications and terms of governmental officials. This instruction is not controversial and prepares students for the citizenship examinations given in some states and for competitions, such as "citizenship bees."

But most leaders in social science education promote analytical and inquiry-based instruction and even experiential learning about government and politics. There are also programs in which students examine public policy problems and in which students are observers or interns in government. Consequently, although there is a considerable amount of student learning based on

memorizing facts, this is not the preferred mode of education in civics and government. Many American teachers want their students to acquire and use skills enabling them to assess issues and participate in political life.

There is an American tradition of critical analysis of the institutions of government and of public officials, although there is some disagreement over how much this is implemented in pre collegiate education. Students are encouraged to raise questions and hold government accountable for its operations, or critics object when such encouragement is not practiced. Students are also taught that the United States has a limited government that cannot encroach upon rights of its people. Indeed, the Bill of Rights along with political participation are given considerable emphasis in civics instruction.

Currently there is a concern to provide instruction about the responsibilities of citizens along with the rights of citizens. There is attention now to civic responsibilities, notably, respect for the law and civility; appreciation of the rights of others, particularly, those from different ethnic and racial groups; and preparation for participation in public affairs.

The topics covered by this framing question constitute a considerable part of the curriculum on civics and government in the United States, and often constitute most of a high school course on American government. American youth are expected to learn about government in order to protect their rights and promote their preferences and interests. In the United States, citizenship education promotes knowledge of the Constitution, law, and government because citizens are expected to be active in politics and because civic activity sustains American democracy.

b. Policies

State and local curriculum guides specify expectations in this area. The National Standards for Civics and Government and the Curriculum Standards for Social Studies make recommendations about the treatment of these topics.

c. Terminology

These topics are addressed primarily in social studies, civics, government, and law courses. Law-related education is a source of training and instructional material for teachers. Experiential education, internships, and service learning are vehicles whereby students have direct exposure to or experience in government and politics.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

There is no controversy about the place of the subject in the curriculum. From time to time, the discussion of specific issues in school become controversial in particular communities, e.g., abortion, freedom of speech and association for extremist groups.

e. Organizations.

American Political Science Association, American Bar Association, Center for Civic Education, Constitutional Rights Foundation, National Council for the Social Studies, University based institutes of government, Taft Institute, Close Up, Presidential Classroom, Social Science Education Consortium, Boys and Girls State, Kids Vote, USA, Weekly Reader, state mock elections, student councils, MTV.

f. Sources

Compendium of Research Supporting Law Related Education (1997), National Standards for Civics and Government, state standards and curricula documents, Curriculum Standards for Social Studies. American government and civics textbooks, NAEP reports on citizenship and civics assessments for 1972, 1976, 1988, and the NAEP 1995-1996 framework. Kettering Foundation Studies; and studies done by organizations listed above. See also citations to polls, reports from civic organizations and youth groups in questions 11 and 18. Relevant cases: Marbury v Madison (1803); McCulloch v Maryland; Gibbons v Ogden (1824); Dred Scott

(1857); Plessy v Ferguson (1896); Brown v Board of Education (1954); Gitlow v New York (1925); Griswold v Connecticut (1965); Miranda v Arizona (1966).

14. What sorts of political communication and active political participation are encouraged or likely for those aged 14 or 15 and what sorts are discouraged or unlikely? Are there certain topics or opinions which students are discouraged from discussing in their classes? To what extent are young people expected to know about and participate in election campaigns and political parties? Are they encouraged, allowed, or not allowed to discuss in school the disagreements which exist between candidates or parties? How are they to be prepared to vote in an informed way when they are of an age to do so? Are young people expected or likely to believe that the government is responsive to citizen's expressions of political views and to feel confident or efficacious about their ability to make their opinions heard? Are there indications that civic education discourages some groups of young people from being active or militant?

a. Importance

Although this question is important in the United States where participation is widely promoted, the panel members felt it was less important for the case study than several other framing questions which address issues that are contentious in the United States today.

Students participate in family decisions and some observe their parents participating in community affairs. In school, students often vote on issues in their class and in school elections for representatives to student councils. In regard to the wider political arena, students identify disagreements between political parties and candidates. During election periods, many schools and classes hold mock elections. Participation in political campaigns is neither encouraged nor discouraged, but usually considered a beyond-school activity for students age 15 and below (older students are more likely to engage in partisan activity when they are old enough to vote). Students are encouraged to be efficacious. Research from the 1960s and 1970s indicated that American students are efficacious, but recent research is less clear (Mathews, 1996). In recent years there has been much interest in service learning as a form of civic participation. Critics, however, argue that volunteerism without attention to trying to affect social change is inadequate.

Research indicates that discussion of controversial public policy issues in an open

supportive environment correlates with political efficacy and interest, particularly among students at the middle and high school levels. Topics that are most likely to be avoided in social studies and other classes deal with sex, homosexuality, abortion, and in some areas, race, and locally controversial issues that divide the community. Studies on that are now dated (Gross, 1977; Hahn, 1985; Massialas, Sprague, & Sweeney, 1970; Morrisett, 1975) and need to be updated by our case study.

b. Policies

Attention to varied forms of political participation will appear in the curriculum at different grade levels and in different ways, depending on the local school district's and state's emphasis on this as a component of civic education. Some states and school districts have official policies on the handling of controversial issues in the school.

c. Terminology

These topics are most likely to be studied in social studies, civics, and government courses. The informal or hidden curriculum sends messages to students about participation and about the handling of controversial issues.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

Although official statements by the National Council for the Social Studies and by some states and school systems emphasize that students learn to become participating democratic citizens by engaging in participation experiences and by investigating controversial issues in a pluralistic society, some groups oppose bringing controversial issues into the classroom or encouraging students to engage in political activities in their community.

e. Organizations

The Presidential Classroom, Constitutional Rights Foundation, Kettering Foundation, the

National Issues Forum, League of Women Voters, Scouts, the Walt Whitman Institute (Barber), the Humphrey Institute (Boyte), the Taft Institutes, Center for Civic Education, service learning networks.

f. Sources

NAEP studies; Times-Mirror polls, Weekly Reader and Scholastic surveys; People for the American Way study; Broudy's (1994) study of We the People; Newmann & Rutter (1986); and ask organizations above if they have any data on student attitudes and experiences in this area.

15. What are young people between the ages of 14 and 15 expected or likely to know and believe about dissent or protest as a way of changing government policy? Are they expected to learn that conflict between groups about issues is normal, exceptional or deviant? More broadly, what kinds of dissent or criticism of the government are to be encouraged and what kinds are to be ignored or suppressed? For example, what is taught about participation in political protests of different types? To what extent and under what conditions are students able to take part in political protests without fear of sanctions? Are young people encouraged to believe that protests are an effective or an ineffective means of bringing grievances to the attention of authorities? Are there conditions under which political violence is regarded as inevitable or tolerable, or is it always unacceptable?

a. Importance

At least from a historical point of view, dissent/protest is widely taught as an important and even as a valuable activity (e.g., Boston Tea Party, abolitionist movement, suffrage movement, labor movement, and civil rights movement). This question is important also because direct political action has played a large role in political activities in this century, e.g., the civil rights movement, the anti-Vietnam War protests, and environmental actions. Much, though certainly not all, direct action is in the form of protest activity. Students are taught that there are limits to dissent; for example, violence is punished, and expression of "un-Americanism" is vigorously debated. Debate about participation of students usually does not arise by age 14 or 15, but it does in high school.

b. Policies

Policies vary by state and local district.

c. Terminology

In the political science literature, "political action" and "unconventional" political activities

are often used in talking about these kinds of activities. Students study about protest activities in social studies and history classes.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

Major protests such as those cited in (a) are key events in United States history. There is, however, considerable controversy about how and how much these activities should be taught precisely because they go beyond conventional political behavior and because they have the potential for explosive results, as well as very positive results. Controversy continues over groups that opposed the Vietnam War, over militia movements today, and extremists that raise questions about both past and current dissent activities. Consequently, teachers often feel they must be careful in addressing such controversial topics.

e. Organizations

Human rights groups, such as Amnesty International with its young people's program; environmental and other groups, such as Greenpeace; American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU); Anti-Defamation League; Ralph Nader's organization.

f. Sources

NCSS Curriculum Standards for Social Studies; National Standards for Civics and Government; state and local requirements; research by Eyler (1980); Broudy (1994); Avery, Bird, Johnstone, Sullivan, & Thalhammer (1992).

16. What are young people 14- to 15 -years-old expected or likely to believe about the mass media as sources of information about politics and government? Is more emphasis put on the media as reliable and to be trusted, or are the media more likely to be thought of as biased or unreliable? To which media sources are students encouraged to pay attention, and to which are they likely to attend? What are young people expected or likely to learn about freedom of expression and the conditions (if any) under which it can be restricted, and who can invoke such censorship?

There is considerable use of the mass media as sources of information about politics and government in the United States--in society and in the schools. Civic education draws upon newspapers and television and now upon other electronic media, notably the Internet. In addition to specially written news magazines for young readers (Junior Scholastic, Scholastic Update, Time for Kids), there are programs for using adult newspapers and news magazines in the schools (NY Times, Washington Post, The Wall Street Journal, USA Today, Christian Science Monitor, The U.S. News and Time education programs). There are public television series, such as "Eyes on the Prize," "The Constitution: That Delicate Balance," and "Congress: We the People," designed for civics instruction. Television channels, such as CNN (Newsroom/World View), Channel One (the organization that provides free televisions to schools in return for their showing the 10 minute daily broadcast of news, features, and commercials targeted to young people), C-SPAN, and MTV (the Cable Channel specializing in music videos) carry programming for young people and provide workshops and study guides to help teachers adapt their programming to educational purposes.

The media are pervasive in American life. For example, it is estimated that 99% of households have at least one television set, 54% of children have a television set in their bedrooms, and during prime time 7 million teenagers and 9-10 million pre teens are watching TV (Hepburn, 1997).

The media are diverse and students perceive them in a variety of ways. Public television, instructional programming, and C-SPAN coverage are considered relatively fair and unbiased, but

students rarely use these media. They are more likely to watch the major networks and some cable channels. Educators express some concern about the "bias" due to cynicism and negativity of much contemporary national broadcast news. Local television news tends to cover much violence and crime, giving students the impression that news is usually "bad." Students also hear much coverage of the sensational and sexual on television talk shows, and of the perspectives of angry and alienated people on radio talk shows. The recent increase in the political clout of radio talk shows/call in shows is indicative of both the power of media and the burgeoning of programs for a segment of society.

Nonetheless, students are encouraged to use the media as a source of information in order to examine and discuss public affairs and public programs. Teachers routinely tape programs for viewing and discussion in classes. Also, it is likely that the use of the Internet and World Wide Web as sources of public affairs information and instruction will increase.

Although there are no government sanctioned or official sources of media, public broadcasting does offer an alternative to private commercial radio and television channels. Moreover, whereas the concentration of control is in the major broadcast media (e.g., ABC/Disney, CNN/Time Warner), there are now many sources of media due to the growth of cable stations and the aforementioned evolution of radio talk shows. Most recently there is access to government representatives and presidential candidates via Internet.

The freedom of the press, encompassing all forms of mass media, is protected by the first amendment to the United States Constitution. This regard for a free press and media and the protection granted to media coverage and criticism of government is communicated to young Americans in school and in the media. Students learn that censorship is wrong and destructive to the free access to information and critical appraisal of governmental officials necessary for democracy. They are likely to learn that press freedom was established in colonial America in the case that involved John Peter Zenger, a New York editor who was acquitted of libel in 1735.

Additionally, students' rights to freedom of expression have been protected by constitutional cases brought on behalf of student publications in high schools and colleges. High

school government and law classes are likely to study those cases.

a. Importance

Media and politics is an important issue because of the considerable power and influence accorded to the media. It is not possible to study public opinion, popular politics, voting behavior, and interest group activities without attention to the media.

b. Policies

Treatment of the media in curriculum varies by state and local district.

c. Terminology

Social science terminology for the media are not used in precollege discussions of the media. Media sources include: Channel One, MTV, Public Access Cable, talk shows, call-in shows. Freedom of press is treated in social studies, history, and civics classes. The media are used in language arts / English, the arts and physical education lessons , as well as in social studies.

d. Public Discussion/Controversy

The role of mass media in American politics, especially in partisan politics and controversial issues, is a "hot topic" for the press itself, for the public, and for scholarly inquiry. The use of commercial sources of media such as Channel One is a contested issue in public education today. For example, one national poll assessed the public's support for Channel One, a company that loans television sets and satellite dishes to schools in return for showing their 10 minute news and features program. Each broadcast contains two to three minutes of commercial advertising targeted at youth. The program was estimated to be in some 12,000 schools in 1994. At the time, 66% of the adults polled said they supported such an arrangement between schools and the commercial media. Thirty percent opposed it (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1994).

e. Organizations

American Civil Liberties Union, American Society of Newspaper Editors and Publishers, Accuracy in Media, Media and Politics section of the American Political Science Association (APSA), Annenberg School of Journalism, National Cable TV Association, The Freedom Forum (projects to protect free expression), National Association of Broadcasters, White House Press Corps, National Press Club Foundation, Sigma Delta Chi, and other professional associations of journalists.

f. Sources

Roper Center polls; The American Enterprise magazine's section on polls (digested from the Roper Center in an accessible format); National Election Studies directed by Kathleen Hall Jameson; for bibliographies contact the Media and Politics Section of APSA; research on Channel One, Pew Center for Civic Journalism (projects on media accountability and civic well being).

Significant court cases on freedom of the press and limitations on media coverage: (* for importance):

1. Prior restraint: *Near v Minnesota (1931); *New York Times v United States (1971); *Hazelwood School District v Kuhlmeier (1988).

2. Government control of press content: Red Lion Broadcasting v FCC (1969); Simon & Schuster, Inc. v Members of the New York State Crime Victims Board (1991).

3. Libel and obscenity as press limitations: *New York Times v Sullivan (1964); Hustler Magazine v Falwell (1988); Roth v United States (1957); New York v Ferber (1982).

4. School Press Cases: *Island Trees.

17. What are young people 14- to 15-years-old expected or likely to know and believe about the source and nature of specific local problems, especially those existing in their own communities? Is there special concern about environmental problems, problems relating to poverty, or problems of violence and disregard for laws (for example)? Does the school provide for or encourage the involvement of students in community action or service to ameliorate such problems in their local community? Are young people likely to be optimistic or pessimistic about their ability to contribute to solving these problems? Are they encouraged to think about these problems in a broader context (for example, the global nature of environmental problems or the national economic structure as it relates to poverty), or is that level of analysis ignored or discouraged?

a. Importance

In the United States, traditional civics and government classes spend a disproportionate amount of time studying the national government—Congress, the President, the Supreme Court, and the United States Constitution. Very little time is devoted to state government and even less to local government. That is paradoxical for several reasons. First, local self-governance is the cornerstone of American democracy. The goal of government of, by, and for the people is more readily attainable in the towns and cities where people live than at the more remote state and national levels. Therefore, this question is of some importance.

In contrast to one national government and 50 state governments, there are more than 83,000 separate local governments in the United States, according to the 1990 census. In addition, there are more than 500,000 elected positions at the local level. A second reason that the failure of American schools to devote time and attention to the study of local government is difficult to understand is its immediacy. Students' daily lives are affected by countless decisions made at the local level by city councils, school boards, recreation, police and planning commissions, and municipal utility districts. What is more, students can observe firsthand all of those decision-making bodies at work, and they can, with appropriate instruction, learn how to monitor and

influence them. A third reason for calling into question the lack of attention to local government is that it affords students and teachers a laboratory in which they can develop and practice the participatory skills which are essential for informed, effective citizens.

When students join with their peers, neighbors, or an interest group to effect changes they believe will improve the quality of life in their school or community, they are learning essential elements of democratic civic action. When students "shadow" an elected or appointed government official, they are learning about leadership in a constitutional democracy and the exercise of authority and the limitations on power that accompany it. And when students are engaged in analyzing local issues and in evaluating, taking, and defending positions regarding them, they are learning about the importance of a free marketplace of ideas in a constitutional democracy.

Because of current insufficient instruction about local government and local issues, young people 14- to 15-years old are too often ill-informed about the source and nature of many specific local problems and about how those problems might be remedied. In that respect they are not unlike many adult citizens. Although the overall voter turnout of Americans in national and state elections is low, the meager voter turnout for local elections is truly deplorable. In many instances a small minority of voters decides school board, city, and county elections, as well as how local resources will be expended.

Adult citizens, like 14- and 15-year-olds, often fail to understand that local governments are organized differently from state and the national governments. For example, they are unaware that although separation of executive and legislative functions is common at state and national levels, it is generally not found at the local level. Whereas the national and all but one of the state legislatures are bicameral, local "legislatures" (city councils, county boards of supervisors, etc.) are almost uniformly unicameral. Similarly, whereas representatives to the United States Congress and state legislators are elected to represent certain districts or a given constituency, with some exceptions, the bulk of aspirants to local offices run "at-large" and are expected to represent the entire electorate. Candidates for the principal offices at the national and state levels carry a party label. Candidates for local offices usually do not; they most often run as non-partisans.

Another area about which both students and adult citizens are ill-informed is the relationship of one level of government to another. The false analogy of the three levels of government to a wedding or layer cake still is being used. In that analogy the national, state, and local governments are conceived as separate layers that could stand alone as viable governments. Today's governments are interdependent. The interrelatedness of modern institutions and problems is a political, economic, and social reality; intergovernmental cooperation is required to deal with many significant issues such as air pollution, transportation, and health care.

Fourteen- and 15-year-olds have a rudimentary understanding of federalism and of the division of power between national and state governments as defined by the United States Constitution. They are less aware that the relationship between a state government and its local subdivisions is unitary—local governments are subordinate to the state, and have only those powers authorized by state law. Adolescents generally do not realize that a state has legal authority to do such things as charter cities, change county boundaries, or impose administrative and financial burdens on local governments. It is true that some modification of the unitary principle takes place when a state adopts "home rule" for local governments, but such authority may usually be withdrawn or circumscribed by state law.

Lack of basic knowledge about the nature, functions, and relationships of national, state, and local governments means that 14- and 15-year-olds are likely to have only a general or vague understanding of how to address problems in their community. Environmental issues may be an exception. Those problems are introduced very early in American schools, even in kindergartens. Environmental issues are discussed in various classes including science, language arts, the social studies, and vocational education as students progress through school. Students also learn about them from the media which devote considerable attention to environmental concerns germane not only to the United States but to the whole planet Earth.

Adolescents also are conversant with and concerned about problems of violence and law enforcement, because these are topics commonly discussed in schools, families, and the media. Special units of instruction or programs in law-related education have heightened student

awareness.

Poverty is less likely to be a major topic in elementary, middle, and junior high schools. Some aspects of poverty, such as homelessness and hunger, are studied, but systematic or rigorous study of poverty per se is not. There appears to be consensus that such study is more appropriate to the senior high school.

At present there is great interest in school-based community service or service learning. The idea is being touted by some policy makers, politicians, and educators. It also is being roundly criticized by others, especially if service is mandatory. Recommendations that service be a part of the school experience are not new, however. They have reappeared in cycles throughout this century and have been a consistent feature of educational reform proposals for the last 20 years.

In late 1992, the Gallup organization conducted what was purported to be the most comprehensive look at volunteering among youths aged 12 to 17 yet attempted. The survey was sponsored by Independent Sector, an umbrella group for hundreds of nonprofit organizations nationwide. Two thirds of the teens who volunteered said their schools urged them to do community work, and if their school promoted such involvement, the students were almost twice as likely to volunteer. Although encouragement by schools topped the list of reasons teenagers gave for volunteering, religious institutions and youth groups also were influential. And following a pattern found among adults in previous studies, young people were four times as likely to volunteer if they were specifically asked to do so by someone they knew.

Of those surveyed by Independent Sector, 21% said their school offered courses on community service. Eight percent said it was a condition of graduation. Students surveyed donated an average of 3.2 hours per week to everything from cultural and political organizations to environmental groups, homeless shelters, and to youth and child care centers. There were differences in community service based on family income, ethnic background, and geography. Of youths whose parents were professionals, 70% volunteered, compared with 54% for teenagers of blue collar and other nonprofessionals. White youths were more likely than black youths to give of their time, although the rate of volunteering for black students climbed dramatically from 33% in

1989 to 53% in 1992. Midwestern teenagers formed the largest group of volunteers, followed by their peers in the west and east. Southern teenagers represented the smallest group of volunteers.

Much attention has been focused on service learning in early adolescence. One program, The Early Adolescent Helper Program, has sites nationwide. It is "the action arm" of the National Center for Service Learning in Early Adolescence. Youth work on a weekly basis with elementary and preschool aged children and the elderly in their own communities. There also are many other programs and organizations concerned with young teenagers. Deserving of particular mention is the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development which seeks to stimulate sustained public attention to the risks and opportunities of the adolescent years and to generate public and private support for measures that facilitate the critical transition into adulthood. In early 1993, the Council published the report of its Task Force on Youth Development and Community Programs entitled A Matter of Time: Risk and Opportunity in the Non-School Hours, which strongly recommended that young adolescents serve their communities as volunteers.

b. Policies

Curriculum policies vary by state and local school system. The National Standards for Civics and Government and the Curriculum Standards for Social Studies both include recommendations for studying about and participating in local civic activities.

c. Terminology

At the elementary and middle school level students may study local issues in social studies and those related to the environment in science lessons. Recent attention has focused on "service learning."

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

As noted above there is currently much interest in service learning. However, some critics worry that students may not go beyond volunteering to trying to influence social change. Others

have objected when students took positions on locally controversial issues, while yet others were pleased to see such student engagement in local public issues.

e. Organizations:

The National Conference of State Legislatures (urges greater attention); the Junior Statesman Foundation (encourages political awareness and involvement by bringing students together to examine and debate contemporary issues); the Center for Civic Education (various programs including Project Citizen which specifically focuses on early adolescents learning about local issues and participating in community affairs); the Constitutional Rights Foundation School Youth Service Network (funded by a grant from the Ford Foundation to expand and augment the Network database of programs and resource people interested in efforts to integrate community service and learning)

Independent Sector (an umbrella organization of voluntary groups to promote volunteerism and active citizenship - also serves as a clearinghouse); Carnegie Council of Adolescent Development (special interest in early adolescents, urges involving them in community service); Close-up Foundation (awareness of and participation in government); National (and State) School Board Association (stimulate interest in local school boards); International City Management Association (stimulate interest in local governance); League of Women Voters (Leagues in many states publish booklets on state/local government); National Conference of Mayors (stimulates interest in local issues); National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law (NICEL) (street law program for young people—focuses on law in "everyday life" in communities); Project Public Life, Minneapolis (Harry C. Boyte, Director) (believes young people find that service meets their needs for personal relevance and a sense of membership in a community); Center for Youth Development and Research, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis; and the last three groups work together, having the same goals: Youth on Board - Youthbuild USA (promotes youth leadership, youth participation and youth involvement programs across the nation); the Youth Voice Project - University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill; and the Corporation on National and Community

Service.

f. Sources

Fred Newmann's work on Community Social Action; Harry Boyte's forthcoming book; Carnegie Commission; and contact all organizations above for any research on this topic.

18. What are young people 14- to 15-years old expected or likely to have learned about the role and influence of extra-governmental groups in governmental and political processes? For example, what is to be learned about the role of organized interest groups? To what extent are young people expected or likely to believe that elites in the nation (e.g. people of great wealth or higher levels of education) possess or deserve special influence or power? Are business organizations, professional organizations, or trade unions thought to possess or deserve special influence or power? What other non-governmental organizations (including grassroots organizations) are young people likely to believe to be important or powerful? Are there social groups which are widely recognized as lacking in power or as disenfranchised?

In both American politics and in civics and government courses, extra governmental groups are prominent. The United States is an open society with constitutional guarantees of the right to hold, express, and organize on behalf of economic and social attachments and preferences in public policy issues. Interest groups, professional associations, and partisan organizations all make significant contributions to setting the agenda for government and to the decisions on policies made by government, including laws, administrative rulings, and, to a lesser extent, judicial proceedings. Instruction about how American government works and the potential for influencing government gives considerable attention to popular politics and the organizations that mobilize and represent people, their political interests, and preferences. Although wealth is an acknowledged resource in gaining political influence and power, it is not the only or frequently the most important factor. Students are taught that numbers of people, the intensity with which a particular group is attached to and promotes its preference, and the righteousness of a cause can be formidable sources of political power. They are taught historical and contemporary case studies of these sources of political power, such as union organizations in the 1940s and 1950s, the Civil Rights Movement in the 1960s, and the National Rifle Association in the 1980s and 1990s.

American youth are taught that no one group or class deserves special influence or power; and that although those who possess more education and wealth have the potential to be influential

and exercise political power, such people do not consistently do so and do not act as a uniform political group. At the same time, there is recognition that there are groups who have less power because they are less active and have fewer of the economic, social, and educational advantages that propel people into political involvement. In courses about American history as well as politics, students are taught about groups heretofore disenfranchised, namely, women and African Americans, and about the struggles of these Americans for voting rights and access to the political process. In these instances, students come to realize that dissenting or extremist groups can gain legitimacy and that protest is a part of the American political process and such protest has and can lead to reform.

There is, however, some ambivalence now about interest group politics and especially about whether the lobbyists that represent groups' interests in national politics have too much power, especially because of the contributions they give to congressional candidates for their election campaigns.

a. Importance

This question is about subjects that are very important in American civic education. The subject is covered in history and civics courses.

b. Policies

Treatment of these topics in the curriculum varies by state and local district.

c. Terminology

"Lobbying" refers to activities to promote specific interests and groups, especially (but not exclusively) in the legislative process. "PACS" (political action committees)-- organizations established to collect money that will be donated to congressional candidates and to promote specific policy positions. These topics are treated in civics or government courses, usually at the 9th or 12th grades.

d. Public Discourse/Controversy

There is no controversy about including the topic in the curriculum. Rather, there has always been some controversy about the interpretations of the legitimacy and appropriateness of the activities and objectives of specific groups, such as socialists and communists in the 1920s and 1930s and lesbian and gay activists in the 1980s and 1990s. There is also discussion about whether political influence is distributed equitably and fairly in the United States. Previous generations of students were likely to receive much more positive, less critical interpretations of the distribution of power.

e. Organizations

All civic education, political education, and civil liberties organizations can be listed here as well as more broad based governmental associations and civic groups, such as the League of Women Voters, 4-H, Municipal League, National Conference of State Legislators, and the Education Commission of the States.

f. Sources

The sources are the same as those for questions 1, 11, and 13 and include the standard documents in history, civics, government, and social studies and surveys on the attitudes of youth and adults about the rights of interest groups and the importance and strategies of popular politics.

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ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF ORGANIZATIONS

Accuracy in Media (AIM), 455 Connecticut Avenue NW Suite 330, Washington, DC 20008. (www.aim.org)

AIM is a nonpartisan news media watchdog organization. Receives complaints for the public on factual errors made by the news media. Researches specific complaints; if they are justified, asks that errors be corrected publicly; publicizes failure of news media to do so. Hosts a daily three-minute radio program, Media Monitor, which is aired on approximately 200 stations around the country. Maintains speakers bureau. Gives recognition for outstanding achievement in the field of fair and accurate journalism. Publications include AIM Report, semimonthly index of AIM Reports annual, The Seductive Illusion Video, Television's Vietnam: The Real Story, and The Impact of Media, Video.

Agency for Instructional Technology (AIT), Box A, Bloomington, Indiana 47402-0120.

Provides leadership and service to the education community through cooperative development, acquisition, and distribution of technology-based instructional materials. Makes available over 2500 instructional programs in such areas as early childhood, health and safety, art, vocational education, career guidance, science, mathematics, social studies, and staff development, for use as learning resources.

American Association of University Women (AAUW), 1111 16th Street NE, Washington, DC 20036. (www.xti.com:80/~jzev/aauw)

Works for the advancement of women through advocacy and emphasis on lifelong learning; engages in research; lobbies Congress. Conducts a study-action program on topics such as women's work/women's worth and promoting individual liberties. Publishes reports on gender equity in education.

American Bar Association (ABA), 750 N. Lake Shore Drive, Chicago, IL 60611. (www.abanet.org)

Activities undertaken to support civic education include a variety of law-related education (LRE) programs through the National Law-Related Resource Center. Programs focus on teaching students to think critically and responsibly as participating citizens. Most LRE programs are taught in elementary, middle, junior-high, and high schools, and in juvenile justice settings. LRE offered in separate courses or integrated into other curriculum areas such as American history and government. In some schools, special LRE events such as Law Day, mock trials, and academic competitions provide additional student motivation to learn about the law and citizenship. The ABA conducts research and educational projects and activities to encourage professional improvement; provide public services; improve the administration of civil and criminal justice; increase the availability of legal services to the public. Sponsors Law Day USA.

American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), 132 West 43rd Street, New York, NY 10036. (www.aclu.org)

Champions the rights set forth in the Bill of Rights of the United States Constitution: freedom of speech, press, assembly, and religion; due process of law and fair trial; equality before the law regardless of race, color, sexual orientation, national origin, political opinion, or religious belief. Activities include litigation advocacy, and public education. Sponsors litigation projects on topics such as women's rights, gay and lesbian rights, and children's rights.

American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, 1150 17th Street NW, Washington, DC 20036.

A private research group which seeks to preserve and improve: open and competitive enterprise; limited and public-oriented government; defense and foreign policies; cultural and political values. Conducts research on domestic and international economic policy; foreign and defense policy; social and political studies. Conducts annual public policy week. AEI World Forum and Election Watch during national election years. Conducts educational programs.

American Federation of Teachers (AFT), 555 New Jersey Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20001. (www.aft.org)

Works with teachers and other educational employees at the state and local level in organizing, collective bargaining, and public relations. Conducts research in areas such as educational reform, bilingual education, teacher certification, and evaluation and national assessments and standards. Represents members' concerns through legislative action. Conducts workshops on democratic education in newly democratic countries.

American Forum for Global Education, 45 John Street, Suite 908, New York, NY 10038. (www.globaled.org)

Educational, research, and consulting organization which works to prepare American students "for the challenge of responsible national citizenship in a global age." Supports activities of other groups and individuals through network development and cooperative projects which further both conceptualization and implementation efforts. Develops instructional materials for kindergarten through grade 12; encourages professional development and support through in service and pre-service training programs; works to develop broad public support to ensure that global perspectives become permanent features of schools. Works with educators and educational agencies at all levels, with national, state, and community organizations, and with media, business, labor, and other interest groups to enhance global perspectives education.

American Historical Association (AHA), 400 A Street SE, Washington, DC 20003. (chun.gmu.edu/aha/index.html)

Professional historians, educators, and others interested in promoting historical studies. Conducts research and educational programs. Activities undertaken related to civic education include providing materials, speakers, and student competitions that relate to topics such as democracy, American ideals, American government, diversity, marginalized groups, economic issues, social welfare, world regions, and international issues. Works with students directly, teachers, parents, municipal or county government, school boards, school curriculum supervisors

or administrators, governors, state legislators, and the media to promote historical studies, some of which relate to civic education.

American Political Science Association (APSA), 1527 New Hampshire Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20036. (www.jstor.org/journals/apsa.html)

College and university teachers of political science, public officials and researchers. Develops research projects of public interest and educational programs for political scientists and journalists; seeks to improve the knowledge of and increase citizen participation in political and governmental affairs. Has sectons on pre-collegiate education, the media, and gender issues.

American Society of Newspaper Editors and Publishers (ASNE), PO Box 4090, Reston, VA 22090-1700. (www.asne.org)

Directing editors who determine editorial and news policy on daily newspapers.

Amnesty International of the U.S.A., 322 8th Avenue, New York, NY 10001. (www.oneworld.org/amnesty/index.html)

Works impartially for the release of men and women detained anywhere for their conscientiously held beliefs, color, ethnic origin, sex, religion, or language, provided they have neither used nor advocated violence. AI clubs at middle and high schools write letters in support of persons of conscience and educate about human rights.

Anti-Defamation League (ADL), 823 United Nations Plaza, New York, NY 10017. (www.adl.org)

To stop the defamation of Jewish people and to secure justice and fair treatment for all citizens. Educates Americans about Israel; promotes better interfaith and intergroup relations; works against anti-Semitism; counteracts anti-democratic extremism and strengthens democratic values and structures. Provides information to students and teachers.

Association of American Geographers, 1710 16th Street NW, Washington, DC 20009. (www.aag.org)

Professional association of geographers, primarily at the university level. Outreach programs to schools, working with teachers, school curriculum supervisors or administrators and, municipal or county governments. Also coordinates geography programs with National Council of Geographers to promote education on topics related to history, government, and economics. Publishes some activity-oriented geography materials.

Atlantic Council of The United States, 1616 H Street NW, Washington, DC 20006. (www.acus.org)

Conducts programs to: promote better understanding of major international security, political, and economic problems; foster informed public debate on these issues; make substantive policy recommendations to both the executive and legislative branches of government, as well as appropriate international organizations. Sponsors young leaders seminars, and has supported some programs for social studies educators related to teaching about shared democratic ideals among NATO allies.

Boys and Girls Club of America, 12330 West Peachtree Street, Atlanta, Ga. 30309. (www.goodwillgames.org/html.index/bgclub)

Boys and Girls Club of America is a national non-profit youth organization comprising 1,850 Boys and Girls club facilities that help some 2.6 million young people connect with opportunities for personal growth and achievement. The Club is the only nationwide, facility-based youth agency with a primary mission of service to girls and boys from disadvantaged circumstances. Clubs provide vital services by offering daily programs promoting the health, social, educational, vocational, and character development of youth ages 6-18. Also makes a positive impact on young lives by building self-esteem and encouraging the development of values and skills during the critical periods of childhood growth.

Boy Scouts of America, 1325 West Walnut Hill, Irving, TX 75015. (www.bsa.scouting.org)

The Boy Scouts of America was established in 1910 to provide educational programs for boys and young adults to build character, to train in the responsibilities of participating citizenship, and to develop personal fitness. Community-based organizations receive national charters to use the Scouting program as a part of their own youth work. These groups, which have goals compatible with those of the BSA, include religious, educational, civic, fraternal, business, and labor organizations, governmental bodies, corporations, professional associations, and citizens' groups. BSA holds a biennial national leadership conference for youth and adult members that offers national competitive events, seminars, shows, entertainment, elections, and an award ceremony. The biennial national law enforcement Explorer conference provides competition, training, demonstrations, program exchanges, and career information in law enforcement.

Carl Vinson Institute of Government, The University of Georgia, 201 North Milledge Avenue, Athens, Georgia 30602. (www.cviog.uga.edu)

Activities and materials produced through the Citizen Education Division of the Institute seek to increase public understanding of local, state, and national government and significant public issues. Works through educational programs directed to teachers, students, civic groups, and the general public. Institute faculty and staff teach workshops, short courses, and public forums, and seminars on such topics as American government and politics, Georgia studies, Constitutional principles, elections and voting, and the law and justice system. Develops and field tests textbooks and instructional material for middle and high school students on Georgia state and local government, Georgia studies, and law. Produces teacher resources including print and audiovisual materials on government, law, and Georgia studies. Several similar institutes at other state universities sponsor programs for educators.

Carnegie Council of Adolescent Development, 2400 N Street NW 6th Floor, Washington, DC 20037.

A program of the Carnegie Corporation of New York which includes researchers, parents, physicians, psychologists, religious leaders, elected officials, and school administrators with a special interest in early adolescents, urges involving them in community service. Conducts research on adolescent development. Seeks to interest the public in the development of preventive measures to combat adolescent problems that may contribute to a significant increase in school drop-outs, youth crimes, teenage pregnancy, drug and alcohol abuse, and teenage suicide.

Center for Civic Education (CCE), 5146 Douglas Fir Road, Calabasa, CA 91302. (http://civiced.org)

Developed several major projects to support the teaching of civic education. In concert with the Council for the Advancement of Citizenship launched CIVITAS, the civics curriculum framework project for the teaching of government, civics, and law in schools. CCE developed We The People, a project designed to give youth an understanding of the background, creation, and history of the system of government brought into being by the United States Constitution; Project Citizen specifically focuses on early adolescents learning about local issues and participating in community affairs. Lessons are designed to help youth understand the principles and ideals that underlie and give meaning to the Constitution. Sponsored the development of the National Standards for Civics and Government and CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education.

Center for Teaching International Relations (CTIR), Graduate School of International Studies, College of Education, University of Denver, Denver, CO 80208.

CTIR was founded to help classroom teachers become more knowledgeable and proficient at teaching global, social science, and educational skill topics. Currently, the Center's main objective is to enhance the understanding and teaching of international and intercultural relations in schools and the community at large. CTIR offers teacher in service workshops, develops, publishes, and offers consultation services.

Children's Defense Fund, 25 East Street NW, Washington, DC 20001. (www.childrensdefense.org)

Provides systematic long-range advocacy on behalf of the nation's children and teenagers. Engages in research on public education, monitoring of federal agencies, litigation, legislative drafting and testimony, assistance to state and local groups, and community organizing in areas of child welfare, child health, adolescent pregnancy prevention, child care and development, family services, and child mental health. Works with individuals and groups to change policies and practices resulting in neglect or maltreatment of millions of children.

Close Up, 44 Canal Center Plaza, Alexandria, VA 22314. (www.closeup.org/default.htm)

Encourages an awareness of and participation in government by citizens of all ages and backgrounds; promotes increased civic awareness, involvement, and achievement through educational programs in government and citizenship. Operates Close Up Washington Program, bringing students and teachers to Washington DC to learn about the politics and processes of the United States government. "Close-Up" sponsors citizen bee competition for students.

Constitutional Rights Foundation (CRF), 601 S. Kingsley Drive, Los Angeles CA 90005. (www.crfc.org)

Seeks to instill in youth a deeper understanding of citizenship through values expressed in the Constitution, especially the Bill of Rights; encourages youth to become active and responsible participants in society. Assists in the development of student and/or teacher internships in government and the justice system. Cooperates in organizing student peer-teaching programs; designing student and teacher seminars and workshops; providing in-service training for teachers; publishes student materials. Provides technical assistance and consulting services to public, professional, and educational agencies for organizing and implementing classroom and community programs on juvenile delinquency prevention education and citizenship education for young people. The Constitutional Rights Foundation School Youth Service Network was funded by a

grant from the Ford Foundation to expand and augment the Network database of programs and resource people interested in efforts to integrate community service and learning.

Eagle Forum , Box 618, Alton, Il 62002. (www.basenet.net/~eagle/eagle.html)

Men and women advocating issues involving family, education, and national defense through local, state, and federal government. Supports pro-family and conservative philosophy. Promotes traditional morality, private enterprise, and national defense. Strives to strengthen parents' and pupils' rights in education.

Family Forum, PO Box 8907, Fort Worth, TX 76124

Christian-oriented group concerned with strengthening family structures and educating others on family issues. Seeks to combat forces that the Forum believes to be destructive to traditional family values.

Family Foundation, PO Box 2265, Bonita Springs, Fl 33959.

Educational research organization seeking to understand and alleviate the problems caused to individuals, families, and society at large by people and groups that employ what they believe are unethical forms of social influence. Reports on legal, medical, psychological, and social issues raised by cultism.

Foundation for Teaching Economics (FTE) , 260 Russell Blvd, Suite B, Davis, CA 95616. (www.fte.org)

The mission of the Foundation for Teaching Economics is to introduce young individuals to an economic way of thinking about national and international issues, and to promote excellence in economic education by helping economics teachers become more effective educators. FTE was formed as a nonprofit, tax-exempt organization in 1975. Economic Forces in American History is a week-long program designed to show United Sates History teachers how to interpret and provide instruction on important historical events from the vantage point of market forces and economic

analysis. Economic Forces in American History presents an economic perspective on the nation's past.

Freedom Forum, 110 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22209. (www.freedomforum.org)

A nonpartisan, international foundation dedicated to free press, free speech, and free spirit of all people. The Freedom Forum makes available a wide range of reports, studies, speeches, other publications and videos related to the media, journalism, and the First Amendment. Publishes Youth Guide to The First Amendment, which focuses on the First Amendment, students and public schools. Develops and publishes materials related to free expression and student rights in public schools including newspaper censorship, dress codes, school prayer, book banning, hate speech, "gangsta" rap, warning labels, and flag burning.

Foreign Policy Association (FPA), 470 Park Avenue South, New York, NY 10016. (www.fpa.org)

National, nonprofit, nonpartisan, non-governmental organization founded to educate Americans about significant world issues that have an important impact on their lives. FPA provides publications, programs, and forums designed to increase public awareness of international matters that shape this country's future, and to foster citizen involvement in those issues. Through its nonpartisan publications and interactive programs and forums, FPA seeks out and encourages individuals in schools, communities and the workplace to participate in the foreign policy process. The annual Great Decisions book is FPA's flagship publication and the cornerstone of FPA's citizen education programs around the country.

Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., 420 5th Avenue, New York, NY 10018. (www.gsusa.org)

Membership includes girls, adult volunteers, and professional workers. Purpose is to meet the special needs of girls and help girls develop as happy, resourceful individuals willing to share their abilities as citizens in their homes, their communities, their country, and the world. Has developed program goals which encourage self-awareness, interaction with others, development of

values, and service to society. Provides girls with opportunities to expand personal interests, learn new skills, and explore career possibilities. Offers leadership training, international exchange programs, and conferences and seminars on topics ranging from management to child development.

Heritage Foundation, 214 Massachusetts Avenue, NE, Washington, DC 20002. (www.abb.org/heritage/aboutthf.html)

Activities undertaken to promote civic education include providing materials and speakers and sponsoring special events. Provides materials or supports activities that relate to democracy, American ideals, diversity and multiculturalism, economic issues, social welfare, international issues, world regions, and law. Works with governors, state legislators, teachers, the media, parents, school boards, and municipal or county governments to promote civic education.

Humphrey Institute, 225 Humphrey Center, University of Minnesota, 301 19th Avenue South, Minneapolis, MN 55455. (www.hhh.umn.edu)

Provides education to students and adults, conducts research, and provides community service. Students have access to learning experiences working on such issues as reducing poverty, reforming public institutions, eliminating racial disparities, promoting international economic development, sustaining natural resources, and improving child welfare. Project Public Life is the outreach arm of the Institute's Center for Democracy and Citizenship. The project promotes citizenship and renewed public ethics through several outreach programs. These programs include projects to give teenagers the tools and encouragement to get involved in public policy discussions.

Independent Sector (IS), 1828 L Street NW, Suite 1200, Washington, DC 20036. (www.indepsec.org)

An umbrella organization of voluntary groups including corporations, foundations, and national voluntary organizations working to promote voluntarism and active citizenship. Purposes are to "preserve and enhance our national tradition of giving, volunteering, and not-for-profit

initiatives" to educate the public about the role of the independent nonprofit sector; to conduct research on the independent nonprofit sector and its usefulness to society. Also serves as a clearinghouse.

International City Management Association (ICMA)

Organization of city managers and local government officials working to stimulate interest in local government.

International Studies Association, Brigham Young University, David M. Kennedy Center, 216 HRCB, Provo, UT 84602.

Social scientists and other scholars from a wide variety of disciplines who are specialists in international affairs and cross-cultural studies; academicians; government officials; officials in international organizations; business executives; students. Promotes research, improved teaching, and the orderly growth of knowledge in the field of international studies. Holds conferences with government officials; conducts workshops and discussion groups; sponsors development of modular curriculum materials.

Junior Achievement, 1 Education Way, Colorado Springs, CO 80906. (www.jadallas.gte.net/whisja.html)

Volunteers from the teaching profession and from business and industry provide students with economic education and opportunities to learn how the American business and economic systems operate. Provides annual forum for leaders from business, education, and other professions to discuss economic issues facing the nation. Maintains the National Business Hall of Fame and inducts laureates. Sponsors national and regional staff training seminars, student competitions, student clubs, and awards.

Junior Statesman Foundation, 650 Bair Island Road, Suite 201, Redwood City, CA 94063. (www.jsa.org/default.html)

Sponsors Junior Statesmen of America, also sponsors Junior Statesmen Summer School offering courses in political science, public speaking, and leadership. Encourages study of politics and government by high school students and teachers; encourages political awareness and involvement by bringing students together to examine and debate contemporary issues. Affiliated with Junior Statesmen of America.

Kettering Foundation, 259 Regency Ridge, Dayton, OH 45459. (www.kettering.org)

Supports programs of Institute for Development of Educational Activities, which is an action-oriented research and development organization. The Charles F. Kettering Foundation, established to assist the educational community in bridging the gap that separates research and innovation from actual practice in the schools. Goal is to design and test new responses to problems in education and to create arrangements for their extensive application. Main activities include developing new and improved processes, systems, and materials and providing information and services that facilitate use of improved methods and materials.

Law and Society Association, University of Massachusetts, Hampshire House Box 33615, Amherst, MA 01003.

Social scientists, law professors, lawyers, and administrators for government and other agencies. Explores the relationships between law and society in order to contribute to the understanding of law as a social and political phenomenon and to expedite the use of law as an instrument of public policy. Promotes the interdisciplinary ventures in the area of law and the social sciences. Sponsors activities that may stimulate criticism and new ideas among scholars and practitioners.

League of Women Voters, 1730 M Street NW, Washington, DC 20036.

Voluntary organization of citizens (men and women) 18 years old or over. Promotes political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government and acts on selected governmental issues. Members select and study public policy issues at local, state, and

national levels and take political action on these issues. Leagues at all levels distribute information on candidates and issues and campaign to encourage registration and voting. Leagues in many cities publish booklets on state and local government.

Mershon Center, 1501 Neil Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43214.

Presently conducting civic education work in Poland. Developed curriculum modules and teacher development modules for civic education. Also develops textbooks for civic education in the United States. Center was established to study international security and public policy. Also conducts studies on international conflict and democratization.

Modern Language Association (MLA), 10 Astor Place, 5th floor, New York, NY 10003.

College and university teachers of English and of modern foreign languages. Seeks to advance all aspects of literary and linguistic study. Under its English Program, acts as a clearing house for information of interest to teachers of English literature and composition.

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), 4805 Mount Hope Dr., Baltimore, MD 21215. (www.naacp.org)

Persons of all races and religions who believe in the objectives and methods of the NAACP. To achieve equal rights through the democratic process and eliminate racial prejudice by removing racial discrimination in housing, employment, voting, schools, the courts, transportation, recreation, prisons, and business enterprises. Offers referral services, tutorials, job referrals, and day care. Sponsors seminars; maintains law library.

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE), Union Center Plaza, 1220 L Street NW, Suite 605 Washington, DC 20005.

Educators, administrators, paraprofessional, community and laypeople, and students. Purposes are to recognize, promote, and publicize bilingual education. Seeks to increase public understanding of the importance of language and culture. Utilizes and develops student proficiency

and ensures equal opportunities in bilingual education for language-minority students. Promotes research in language education, linguistics, and multicultural education.

National Association for Multicultural Education (NAME), 2101-A North Rolfe Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209-4525.

Promotes collaborative opportunities for educators and researchers; conference programs are designed to facilitate participant's in-depth exploration of multicultural issues and practices, and challenges for developing good practices. The 1996 conference was held in St. Paul, Minnesota under the theme "Revitalizing Democracy Through Multicultural Education."

National Association of Broadcasters (NAB), 1771 N Street NW, Washington, DC 20036. (www.nab.org)

Representatives of radio and television stations and networks; associate members include producers of equipment and programs. Seeks to ensure the viability, strength, and success of free, over-the-air broadcasters; serves as an information resource to the industry.

National Association of Counties (NACO), 440 1st Street NW, 8th Floor, Washington, DC 20001.

Elected and appointed county governing officials and other county officials and their deputies at management or policy level. Provides research and reference service for county officials and represents county officials at the national level.

National Cable TV Association (NCTA), 1724 Massachusetts Avenue NE, Washington, DC 20036. (www.widmeyer.com/tv/viewing/home.htm)

Franchised cable operators, programmers, and cable hardware suppliers and distributors; affiliate members are brokerage and law firms and financial institutions; state and regional cable television associations. Serves as national medium for exchange of experiences and opinions through research, study, discussion and publications.

National Center for Innovation (NCI), 1201 16th Street SE Washington, DC 20003.

A unit of the Center for Teaching and Learning. Activities undertaken to promote civic education include sponsoring conferences, materials, and speakers on topics related to diversity and multiculturalism, and economic issues. Works primarily with national groups whose focus is on civic education and the promotion of a civil society such as the Close Up Foundation and the Council for the Advancement of Civics.

National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL), 1560 Broadway Suite 700, Denver Co. 80202. (www.ncsl.org)

National organization of state legislative staff. Aims to improve the quality and effectiveness of state legislatures; to ensure states a strong, cohesive voice in the federal decision making process; to foster interstate communication and cooperation. Compiles research data. Provides training, development and service on current issues and concerns.

National Council for History Education (NCHE), 26915 Westwood Road, Westlake , OH 44145. (www.history.org/nche/)

Elementary and secondary school teachers of history, academic historians, education curriculum policymakers and developers, and historical society and museum personnel. Promotes the formal and informal study of history in schools and society. Maintains speakers bureau.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), 3501 Newark Street, NW, Washington, DC 20016. (www.ncss.org)

Teachers of elementary and secondary social studies, including instructors of civics, government, professors of social studies education, social studies curriculum coordinators, geography, history, law, economics, political science, psychology, sociology, and anthropology and other professionals with an interest in social studies education. Promotes the teaching of social studies and research on social studies to the best advantage of the student. Social Education

journal, other publications, and programs focus on social and civic education. Developed Curriculum Standards for Social Studies.

National Council on Economic Education (NCEE), 1140 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10036. (www.indiana.edu/~econed/sponsors/ncee.htm)

An organization of economists, educators, and representatives from business, labor, and finance dedicated to improving economic education by improving the quality and increasing the quantity of economics being taught in all levels of schools and colleges. Initiates curriculum development and research; experiments with new economics courses and ways to prepare students; provides updated teacher-pupil materials; coordinates national and local programs in economics education. Developed Voluntary National Content Standards in Economics.

National Geographic Society (NGS), 17th & M Streets NW, Washington, DC 20036. (www.nationalgeograpic.com/main.html)

Persons interested in increasing and diffusing geographic knowledge. Sponsors expeditions and research in geography, natural history, archaeology, astronomy, ethnology, and oceanography; sends writers and photographers throughout the world; disseminates information through its magazine, maps, books, television documentaries, films, filmstrips, and information services for press and radio. Maintains National Geographic Society Geography Education Program to enhance geographic education in grades K-12.

National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law (NICEL), 711 G. Street, SE, Washington, DC 20003. (www.reccusda.gov/pavnet/cj/cjnaticl.htm)

Educates the American public about the legal system and the laws that affect everyday life. Seeks to heighten the respect for law and feeling of self-worth among students by conducting mock trials, teen action programs, and other law-related educational projects. Develops and updates curriculum materials on practical law and provides training and technical assistance to state

departments of education, local school boards, teachers, and administrators in implementing law-related education. Administers a national model high school street law project in cooperation with Georgetown University Law Center and the District of Columbia Public Schools.

National Issues Forum (NIF), 100 Commons Road, Dayton, OH 45459. (www.brook.edu/CPPE/NIF/NIF_HP.HTM)

Nonpartisan association of universities, continuing education programs, community colleges, libraries, senior citizen centers, leadership groups, neighborhood associations, cable television stations, and foundations. Strives to educate the public on domestic policy issues. Encourages citizen participation in public life. Believes that individuals often do not receive clear, unbiased information concerning pertinent issues, thus contributing to uninformed decisions. NIF programs are used by high school students as well as adults.

National League of Cities 1301 Pennsylvania Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20004. (www.cais.com/nlc/nlc-leag.html)

Federation of state leagues and cities. Develops and pursues a national municipal policy to meet the future needs of cities and help cities solve critical problems they have in common. Conducts research program and seminars. Bestows scholarships and awards.

National School Boards Association (NSBA), 1680 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22314. (www.nsba.org)

Association of municipal and county school boards. Association works with governors, state legislators, municipal and county governments, school curriculum supervisors or administrators, school boards, and the media to promote civic education. Association provides material or supports activities that relate to democracy, American ideals, American government, diversity, marginalized groups, economic issues, social welfare issue, world regions, international issues, and law.

National Women's History Project, 7738 Bell Road, Windsor, CA. 95492. (www.nwhp.org/index.html)

Publishers of annual resource catalog promoting education on the history of women. Encourages multicultural study of women to reclaim contributions and impact of all groups of women and to persuade constructive and expansive social change. Sponsors annual National Women's History Month. Maintains archive for National Women's History Month. Conducts educational training sessions, introducing women into curricula and offers educational consulting for teachers, teacher trainers, administrators, and workplace organizers.

Organization of American Historians (OAH), 112 N Bryan Street, Bloomington, IN 47408. (www.indiana.edu/~oah/)

Professional historians, including college faculty members, secondary school teachers, graduate students, and other individuals in related fields; institutional subscribers are college, university, high school, and public libraries. Promotes historical research and study. Sponsors prize programs for historical writing; bestows awards; maintains speakers bureau.

People for the American Way, 2000 M Street NW, Washington, DC 20036. (www.pfaw.org)

Religious, business, media, and labor figures committed to reaffirming the values of pluralism, diversity, and freedom of expression and religion. PFAW was developed out of concern that an antidemocratic and divisive climate was being created by groups that sought to use religion and religious symbols for political purposes. Emphasizes that in United States society the individual still matters and that in order to improve the quality of life people must strengthen the things that create a positive climate of tolerance and respect for diverse peoples, religions, and values. Maintains a speakers bureau, conducts research programs, compiles statistics, bestows awards, and distributes educational materials, leaflets, and brochures.

Sigma Delta Chi Foundation (SDX), 16 S. Jackson , Greencastle, IN 46135.

Established to provide assistance for the activities of the Society of Professional Journalists. Sponsors speakers, workshops, and competitions; bestows awards for excellence in journalism.

Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC), P.O. Box 21270, Boulder, CO 80308.

Works with students, teachers, and school curriculum supervisors or administrators to promote social science education. Provides materials and supports activities that relate to democracy, American ideals, American government, diversity, social welfare or social issues, world regions, international issues, and law. Support and activities include materials, speakers, student competitions, and sponsoring special events.

The Business Roundtable, 200 Park Avenue, Suite 2222, New York, NY 10166. (www.brtable.org/brt2a.htm)

Major United States corporations represented by their chief executive officers. An influential lobbying force representing the views of American business. Members examine public issues that affect the economy and develop positions that seek to reflect sound economic and social principles. Maintains task forces and conducts extensive research.

The Presidential Classroom For Young Americans, 119 Oronoco Street, Alexandria, VA 22314. (www.forum.ca/session1/messages)

A program for high school students. Seeks to provide an in-depth study of the United States government in Washington, DC to students; enlighten students by personal involvement in government functions. Promotes a dedication to and a greater understanding of the American system of government. Conducts programs for student leaders in Japan. Offers volunteer opportunities for undergraduate and graduate students, teachers, civil servants, military personnel, and other interested professionals.

U.S. Conference of Mayors (USCM), 1620 Eye Street NW Washington, DC 20006. (www.btg.com/USCM/home.html)

Cities with populations of over 30,000, represented by their mayors. Promotes improved municipal government by cooperation between cities and the federal government. Provides educational information, technical assistance, and legislative services to cities. Conducts research programs and compiles statistics.

World Affairs Council, 777 United Plaza 3rd Floor, New York, NY 10017. (www.world-affairs.org)

Research, educational, and publishing group promoting study and public understanding of problems and affairs of peoples worldwide. Areas studied include policymaking, global issues, economics, politics, and the environment. Activities are carried out principally through independently operating programs which publish documents, books, reports, handbooks, guides, directories, and statistics. Works with schools through programs such as the Bay Area Global Education project in San Francisco.

World Bank (WB), 1818 H Street NW Washington, DC 20433.

Comprises the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the International Development Association, and the Internal Finance corporation. Established by the United Nations to assist in raising the standards of living in developing countries by channeling financial resources from developed countries. Emphasis is placed on investments which foster active participation in the development process. Conducts research programs on topics including economic planning and education. Publishes educational materials on economic development and other global issues.

Young Men's Christian Association of the United States of America (YMCA-USA), 101 North Wacker Dr., Chicago IL 60606. (www.ymca.org)

A volunteer movement characterized by local program control designed to meet the community needs of people of all ages, races, religions, abilities, and incomes. Current focus is on strengthening families, developing youth leadership, increasing international understanding , promoting good health, and assisting in community development. Works to address a diversity of social issues through innovative programs in juvenile justice, international exchange, job training , refugee settlement .

Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America (YWCA-USA), 726 Broadway, New York,NY 10003. (www.ywca.org)

An organization of women and girls over 12 years of age and their families who participate in service programs on health education, recreation, clubs, classes, counseling, and assistance to girls and women in the areas of employment, education, human sexuality, self improvement, volunteerism, and citizenship. Seeks to make contributions to peace, justice, freedom, and dignity for all people; works toward the empowerment of women and the elimination of racism. Conducts international advocacy program on human rights and on peace and development.